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ABSTRACT

Position papers presented at a conference of state directors of teacher education and certification focused on the quality of educational personnel. The first paper details the need for new talent in teaching in spite of a decline in job opportunities that adversely affects the quality of the applicant pool prepared to enter the teaching profession. A framework for restructuring teacher preparation into a continuous professional development program, composed of five segments in a sixteen-year process leading to a single certificate at the undergraduate level is described in the second paper. The third paper discusses the development and use of criterion-referenced testing in Georgia along with on-the-job assessment during the first three years of teaching to achieve performance based teacher certification. In the fourth paper, the efforts of the New York Board of Regents to upgrade the performance levels of teachers and administrators are outlined. The fifth paper discusses the current use of teacher internships, both as preservice and as beginning experience and the need for increased management of the induction process. (FG)

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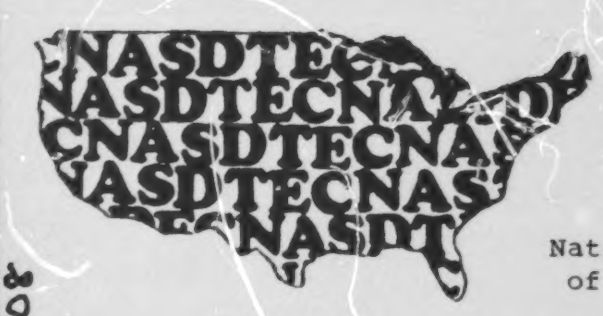

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Assuring Qualified Educational Personnel in the Eighties

"A Revolutionary Concept"

The addresses and papers
presented at the Association's
Fifty-second Annual Convention
June 17-19, 1980

Charles C. Mackey, Jr., editor

This publication is being distributed by the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification as a function of its primary objective --"to exercise leadership in matters related to the preparation and certification of professional school personnel."

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FOREWORD

The National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification takes pleasure in bringing to you this publication, "Assuring Qualified Educational Personnel in the Eighties." This document is the first in what we anticipate will be a series of publications sponsored by NASDTEC. We firmly believe that this information will not only be valuable to you and to many others in various segments of the educational community, but it will give NASDTEC the visibility it should have as a leader in the field of teacher education and certification.

The excellence of the papers and addresses offered at the Association's recent Fifty-second Annual Convention and their relevance to the issues and concerns frequently expressed by many of you, appear to offer an auspicious opportunity to publish and circulate the information as a first attempt to produce a publication of this nature.

We bear a heavy burden as educational professionals who have the responsibility for making and implementing policy for assuring quality of educational personnel to serve the needs of youth in our Nation's schools. It is, therefore, the Association's hope that each of you will derive some help from these papers, perhaps through some answers to the perplexing questions you have, through solace in knowing that others face similar problems, and probably most important through the knowledge that there are no simple solutions to the very complex tasks we face.

Charles C. Mackey, Jr., President
National Association of State Directors
of Teacher Education and Certification

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IN SEARCH OF QUALITY - THE NEED FOR NEW TALENT IN TEACHING

W. Timothy Weaver

Introduction

Welcome to dear old Boston - the home of the bean and the cod - where the Lowells speak only to the Cabots and the Cabots speak only to God!

We are different in Massachusetts. If you don't believe me, try driving your car here! Those bumper stickers that say, "I'm from Massachusetts, I'm different," are to be taken seriously.

Boston is said to be a world-class city - a favorite of the British because of its historic connections and cultural flavor. A world-class city is one where bums loiter at the Public Library instead of the bus depot. That's actually true here. We have the best educated bums in the world. In fact, Anthony Weiner, co-author of the Year 2000, once observed that Boston and Cambridge have the greatest concentration of people in the world educated beyond their intelligence.

I am pleased to have been invited here today because I have some concerns about public education. Those concerns stem from the work I have been doing on the teacher market and academic preparedness of people entering teaching. I must say that both the NEA and AACTE have welcomed my publishing of this work like the plague. Part of the rhetoric of the educational establishment has been to deny the existence of a teacher "surplus" -calling it, rather, a "shortage". I take the position that such an argument is unpromising, even if correct, because schools of education may be the least likely institutions to be able to provide the quality teachers in short supply. The rhetoric of the institutions which train teachers says that the response to this problem has been (and ought to remain) benign neglect - or let the buyer beware, meaning that the responsibility for admissions rests with the client. Students will vote with their feet. These institutions take the position that it's a free country and if students want to prepare themselves for teaching careers the institutions shouldn't say no. But such a position, even if it were benign, from an institutional point of view, results in a chronic over-supply of teachers, complete disruption of the job market for all teachers, declining wages relative to other workers, a serious decline in mobility, a demoralized workforce and deteriorating working conditions. Over the long term, those who want to do something to develop a profession will want to do something about the protracted problems of oversupply.

The evidence thus far accumulated suggests in actuality that the policy of preparing institutions is not just one of caveat emptor, but rather is a policy in which admissions adjustments are being made in some cases that result in rising ratios of acceptances, reaching a situation akin to open enrollments. Accepting students that the college knows full well do not have the academic qualifications to be able to teach and to prepare such people for jobs that do not exist reminds me of the bird who built her nest with a hole in the bottom. She liked to lay eggs but did not like to raise babies.

The result is declining standards and much lower verbal and math skills among entering freshmen in teacher education and in other fields in which market demand has weakened. There are some very serious implications for the future. Those in teacher preparation today constitute the sole source of tomorrow's leaders in public education.

This reminds me of a story I once heard. A man had a cat. He loved the cat dearly, as some people do. He had to take a trip abroad and so he left the precious animal with his brother. When the man called from London and asked about the cat, his brother said, "the cat is dead."

The man was shocked and said to his brother, "Why couldn't you have broken the news more gently?" His brother wanted to know what he should have said.

"Well," said the man, "you could have told me the cat was on the roof when I called from London, and we are hoping for the best."

"Then, when I called again from Paris you could have said the fire department didn't get here on time and the cat has fallen. But he is in the hands of the best veterinarian in town, and we are hoping for the best."

"In Rome," the man continued, 'you might have said "we were hoping for the best but, unfortunately, the cat passed away on the operating table."

The brother agreed that he might have been too direct. The man said, "by the way, how is Mother?"

There was a pause, and then the reply came back: "Mother is on the roof and we're hoping for the best."

You can draw your own analogy to public education but certainly the last issue of Time suggests that the premise on which the public values and gives legitimacy to public education is being exposed to renewed scrutiny. Certainly, at a minimum, that premise would hold that schooling produces literacy, and that those who conduct the schools are themselves literate.

My remarks today are based on a study of higher education institutions and the adaptive practices employed by these institutions as they have come under increasing stress. In particular, I have been impressed with Richard Freeman's earlier work on the oversupply of college graduates. The Freeman studies looked at quantitative changes but not qualitative. My initial effort was to try to study qualitative change, and at that time there was no particular focus on teacher education, although I was not ignoring it. Most of the attention this work has attracted, however, has come from the reported results on teacher test scores.

The general thesis of this work may be summarized as follows: As market demand for new graduates in any given field declines, not only will the quantity of potential students decline but also the quality of the applicant pool prepared to enter that field of study. Higher education institutions will adapt to decline by selecting the best from a shrinking pool of talent but in doing sacrifice absolute for relative standards. Some of the potential students who would ordinarily enter the field choose not to do so, exercising an option to enter other fields and leaving behind those who choose to remain and those who have no choice. I should be clear that student options are constrained by the minimum level of ability required for entry into various fields of study and into various institutions. For example, a student whose combined SAT score exceeds 1,200 will have more options (i.e., he will be less constrained) than a student whose combined score falls below 800. My analyses of the NLS data on transfers from field to field for the class of 1976 show that the largest number of transfers between freshman and senior years occurred among students in the highest-ability fields. As an aside, the controversy over whether the SAT is an achievement test or an aptitude test notwithstanding, colleges take it seriously and department faculties believe in test scores.

In short, falling applications and declining test scores combined with an increase in the ratio of acceptances will produce a decrease in mean test scores among entering students relative to other fields not in decline and relative to the general test score decline. The principle holds true for both graduate and undergraduate programs and, insofar as I can determine, is passed through to graduation.

This principle, aptly put by Myron Lieberman as "Show me the college that would prefer no students to poor students," is the mirror image of James E. McCellan's definition of the education system (Toward An Effective Critique of American Education):

> . . . It is that part of the total educational enterprise of the society which automatically receives more students, or better students, or longer control over students, or some combination of the above, whenever a decision is made to upgrade educational requirements anywhere in the nation's economy.

What McCellan did not say, but what follows logically, is that the system is also defined as that part of the total enterprise that will receive fewer students, or poorer-quality students, or shorter control over students, or some combination of those whenever a decision is made to down-grade educational requirements any where in the nation's economy, including the education system itself. What has all of this to do with teacher certification?

The history of teacher certification requirements shows that what is meant by the qualified teacher has generally been a matter of the level and kind of formal education courses taken by the teacher as established by the profession, required by state law, and provided by schools of education. It also has been the case that the minimum qualification required to teach has constantly risen throughout this century but has been altered to adjust to supply. This seems to be an issue which regards the political system of education rather than a matter of pedagogical theory.

No one ever seriously argued that these kinds of attributes (those that had to do with the qualified teacher) were necessarily connected to specific teacher

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competences, or student learning outcomes. But with competency-based certification that picture has been radically altered. States are now saying that certification implies more than degrees and course-taking. It implies that teachers must demonstrate prescribed skills. But in so doing, new issues are raised.

It is not precisely clear whether competency-based certification implies that certain attributes are necessary for the competent teacher because they are connected to (1) the direct benefits of education for students (attitude, skills, etc.); (2) the indirect benefit of education (presumed to be some measure of social success); or (3) some other outcome such as the moral, aesthetic, social, or psychological development of the child. It may be argued, on the other hand, that what is meant by the competent teacher under the new state laws has nothing to do with any of these kinds of outcomes or outputs but, rather, with how well the teacher performs certain acts of teaching regardless of outcome. For instance, the competent teacher may be well organized and present not only an interesting lesson but also one which is based upon behavioral objectives and employs feedback and a variety of teaching strategies. The competent teacher, on the other hand, may simply be one who is humanistic or very articulate, dynamic, charismatic, nondirective, or whatever. If it is the case that such attributes are not valued because they are connected to any particular learning outcome--that is, have no particular meaning which is dependent upon their consequences for students when we are speaking of something akin to ritual.

However, if in fact the competent teacher is one who has these attributes, and these produce certain desired consequences, then we are speaking of something very important--what one might call praxis. The question of competent teaching then becomes answerable in terms of whether action has meaning for certain desired learning consequences. That question can be studied empirically. It is a matter of observation whether competent teaching produces desired results. Thus far, few of the attributes examined in the larger context of schooling have been shown to strongly or even moderately explain variance in learning as measured by standardized achievement tests, net the effects of the child's intelligence and family background. The one important exception is the verbal ability of the teacher. And it should be noted that the most recent work of Anna Somers in Philadelphia would suggest that intesnsity of teaching is a very important factor.

It isn't clear just where the competent teacher argument will lead us. One place it may lead us is that, so far at least, those people who possess the particular attributes we are mandating in state law will not necessarily come from schools of education (indeed, they may not even come from colleges or universities), but in fact can come from no other source since schools of education have a legal strangle-hold on preparing such people. At issue is whether the particular qualities required for competent teaching are themselves a necessary result of experiences in schools of education. The very fact that the definition of the competent teacher has changed repeatedly since the last quarter of the nineteenth century probably suggests that either professional educators have not been able to discover scientifically what actually constitutes the effective teacher (as opposed to what constitutes the dutiful teacher), or that each act of discovery is followed by a change in social conditions that renders the discovery false. One may well be led to conclude that there aren't enough competent teachers, but the conclusion may have nothing to do with any specific conclusions about surpluses or shortages of output from colleges of education.

There is empirical evidence confirming the logically presumed relationship between language ability of teacher and language ability of student. This relationship is very important because, at least in Massachusetts, one of the prerequisites for certification the state will impose on all new teachers is evidence of communication ability. The major source of salient data is the study of James S. Coleman _et al._ (1966), which initially established positive, significant correlation coefficients between teachers' verbal ability and measures of verbal achievement of students in elementary and high school. The relationship strengthened at higher grade levels. Eric Hanuchek reanalyzed the Coleman data for the Great Lakes and Northeast regions. His data, like the Coleman Data, show significant correlation coefficients between teacher and student verbal scores, net the effects of family background. Samuel Bowles and Henry Levin also reanalyzed the Coleman data and reconfirmed the relationship between teacher and student verbal scores. James Guthrie and his co-authors (_Schools and Inequality_) state the significance of these findings on verbal ability:

> The findings can be construed to mean that an intellectually facile instructor is more adept at tasks such as finding means to motivate students, adapting materials to their ability levels, and communicating in ways that make the subject matter more understandable. This is an interpretation that is totally consistent with observation and conventional wisdom (pp. 70-71).

The Requirements of Competency

But what are the broader implications? Can any profession be judged entirely by whether its treatments produce desired results? I believe not, because in most cases the desired results are too ambiguous, or not observable in the short term. Even if the results are observable and unambiguous, it is rarely possible to show a direct and indisputable casual link from treatment to cure. One might think of the result of counseling and psychotherapy which are neither unambiguous or short term. The same can be said of education.

But there remains a reasonable expectation. The most masterful surgeon cannot restore life to the terminal patient. That is unreasonable. Results may even vary inversely with skill, the most skilled taking the most difficult cases and thus having the poorest success rate.

On the other hand, a profession would cease to have legitimacy at all if it never produced any results that were thought to be casually connected to competent practice. Imagine the situation in which surgeons killed all of their patients, or every patient in psychotherapy was driven incurably mad, or lawyers sent every client to the gallows. Given these results, the basis of a claim to authority would be preposterous. Even the raindancer must produce rain sometime, the priest must save some soul sometime, and the witch doctor must effect some cure sometime. Otherwise, there would be no grounds on which to exclude anyone from membership in the professions, ministries, or crafts.

Even in teaching some results under some conditions must be shown sometime. The question is which results at which time.

Is it a reasonable expectation that school teachers ought to instill in students the ability to read and write sentences, recognize common words, add, subtract and multiply numbers with at least minimal proficiency after 12 years of schooling? If it is not, then the discovery that such skills fail the test of minimal proficiency and have diminished would be irrelevant. It seems to me, such basics are expected, school teachers are judged responsible for their development by the public, and the discovery that they have diminished is a cause for public alarm. If the education profession is to make the claim that such skills should be produced by teachers in the schools, then it must also be able to make the claim that its members are competent in the basics they teach.

To the extent the teaching profession cannot claim to be literate and to foster the development of minimal literacy in the young, it will suffer further loss of its fundamental claim to authority. It would be reasonable to contest the legitimacy of the teaching profession to claim any exclusive prerogative in the conduct of schooling, the compelling of communities to set aside property rights through taxation, or the enforcement of compulsory attendance (I am encouraged in this view by the Robinson v. Cahill and Pauley v. Kelley decisions which have defined "through and efficient education" precisely in terms of results).

In this sense, the education profession must be able to claim that schooling is essential precisely because it fosters the development of certain skills and attitudes among the young which eventually strengthen the community's welfare and protect those very political rights that are subordinated through taxation so that schooling is freely available for all. Under these circumstances, it will be necessary for those who teach in the schools to show that teaching results in learning, and that the teaching profession possesses competencies which at a minimum are believed to be decisive in producing those learning results. Among those competencies, it is presumed, will be the ability to add, subtract, read and write.

If we discover that those competencies of teachers (adding, subtracting, reading and writing) have declined or are low to begin with, then one should expect an enormous public outcry.

I believe that it is also important to realize that defining teacher certification standards through the law in terms of skills at a time when these skills appear to be embarrassingly low, accompanied by public awareness of declining student test scores, reinforces further the public belief that student competency and teacher competency are casually connected. They are not, but a public perception seems to be emerging that solving one will solve the other. (See Time, week of June 9, 1980.)

The forces deriving this response are both coincidental and deliberate - coincidental in the sense that social, demographic and economic conditions have converged in such a way as to limit school resources but to flood the job market not only with too many teachers but a whole generation of overeducated Americans. This condition emerges on the tail end of a period of rapid social change and educational growth which expanded opportunities for disenfranchised social groups, compelling an unwilling public education system, in some instances, to accommodate them, and now to pay the price to ensure equitable treatment, which in some cases means expending far more on these groups than the average student, the forces are deliberate in the sense that competency-based certification and student testing are consistent with professional interests in controlling the job market for teachers. Student testing, if one follows it to its logical end and presumes that failure will be remediated, generates new services for those failing to meet minimum standards, and teacher testing restricts the glut of new teachers entering the job market - if testing is limited strictly to new teachers (a position, I note, supported by the NEA).

The basics movement, and its cohabitor, competency testing of students, suits the dominant social class because its advantage through schooling, always eroded with expanded opportunity for other social groups, is strengthened by a re-emphasis on cognitive skills. The upper strata is favored by such a policy because their offspring are disproportionately represented among high achievers. The more the schools emphasize cognitive skills, and not other forms of development, the greater their advantage.

Is it fair to conclude from test scores that teacher competency is a major problem? Although I have used a variety of measures to avoid the SAT controversy, the SAT seems to capture attention.

Is there really any consensus on what kinds of academic skills teachers need to have? Is an SAT, NTE, GRE, or ACT score a fair indicator of that skill level? Do teachers need to have proficiency levels equal to people in other professional fields? What difference does it make if in fact teachers graduating from college have skill levels below average for other graduates?

As an aside, but a very important aside, it is clear that cognitive ability, while a necessary condition for teaching, is certainly not a sufficient condition. Test scores alone do not characterize the effective teacher. Other factors are important, such as the ability to relate to children. the unanserable question is, how important, relatively speaking, these conditions really are in the art of teaching.

But focusing for the moment on cognitive ability of the teacher, what does the SAT measure?

The SAT is not a test of minimal literacy. NAEP scores would be a better indicator. SAT is a test of high-level reading and in the opinion of Slack and Porter (Harvard Education Review, May 1980) tests achievement of a type not likely to be gained in school work. Farr and Olshavsky (PDK, April 1980) state, "SAT scores tell us very little about the basic literacy of high school upper classmen, and there is no evidence of widespread lack of basic literacy for the population."

What does the SAT test? According to Farr and Olshavsky,

> The SAT tests of reading comprehension generally assess all aspects of reading comprehension, including questions that appear to test literal and inferential comprehension at a level much beyond that which would be considered minimal or basic.

Farr and Olshavsky, in reviewing sample SAT verbal items from a practice book, suggest that successful test takers would certainly have to be able to distinguish between definition and connotation, given such words as "saturine", have a keen understanding of syntax, an awareness of prevailing value systems that must have influenced the test maker, and an ability to select between the obliquely correct and the somewhat more precise. NAEP test items and minimum competency tests modeled after the NAEP require much lower levels of literacy. NAEP tests the kinds of reading typically encountered in everyday experiences requiring minimal evaluation and inference.

What do we expect of teachers? Do we expect minimal reading skills or high level reading skills as measured by the SAT?

What do the new state laws imply? Take, for example, the new Massachusetts certification requirements. Common verbal standards for all classroom teachers include the following:

> The effective teacher communicates clearly, understandably, and appropriately. To meet this standard, the candidate will demonstrate that he or she:
>
> 1. gives clear and concise explanations and directions
>
> 2. frames questions so at to encourage inquiry

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3. uses appropriate metaphors, examples, and illustrations

4. makes the goals of teaching and learning clear to students

5. uses language appropriate to the age, developmental stage, special needs, and social, racial, and linguistic background of his or her students

6. serves as an example of clear and effective oral and written communications

7. listens to students

8. communicates effectively with parents.

Examples of a common instruction/evaluation standards suggest a strong expectation of verbal and conceptual ability of the teacher. Examples include the following:

1. understands the needs and interests of his or her students and designs or adapts the curriculum to meet these needs and interests

2. relates the elements on instruction sequentially to each other, to other fields of knowledge, to students' experiences, and to long-term goals

3. understands developmental psychology, and the relationships between stages of growth

4. teaches, as necessary, the basic academic skills (reading, communication, mathematics) related to the goals of instruction

5. uses evaluative procedures appropriate to the age, developmental stage, special needs, and social, racial, and linguistic background of his or her students, and corrects of any ethnic, racial, or sexual bias in evaluation.

By state law, beginning in 1981, new teachers must have shown evicence of such skills as a prerequisite for certification.

If we take seriously the idea that teachers really ought to be able to do these things, and do them effectively, then we are demanding communication skills of a high level. We are not talking about basics.

Teacher Test Scores

I wish to offer the following propositions: (a) the average academic quality of new people preparing for teaching careers has declined to a point below the level expected in the foregoing discussion; (b) there is substantial evidence to suggest that this condition is consistent with a change in the college-bound population seeking careers in professional fields generally; (c) the causes of this condition have to do with social, demographic and economic factors and the response of college-bound populations to these factors plus the adjustments made by higher education institutions; (d) certification changes are unlikely to have much effect on the problem for several reasons: while certification may influence exit requirements, the real problem rests with the selection of candidates to be trained, and, in a deeper sense, with the nature of the profession and those attracted to it; certification reform may speak to the competencies for which faculties of education are responsible, but the actual development of verbal and quantitative skills is the responsibility of the arts and sciences faculty. The teacher who cannot write effectively, compute numbers or speak convincingly in public has failed to develop such basic skills under the watchful eyes of professors of English, mathematics, and humanities. If we wish to take seriously the idea that teacher competencies include such skills, and a review of the Massachusetts certification law implies that we do, then it must be recognized that the entire college faculty is responsible for preparing teachers - 50% or more of the undergraduate preparation of teachers takes place in the arts and sciences departments. And, finally, the ultimate selection process rests with school districts, and given minimum competency requirements, the latitude will remain broad. My findings do not suggest that school hiring practices now screen new teachers on the basis of academic ability, and I have no reason to believe that competency-based certification will change that condition.

I also wish to suggest that teacher testing will not produce any substantial change in the quality of persons entering the profession. I suggest this because I think the present arguments for testing fail to understand the consequences of restricting entry to this profession to those who might comprise the upper decile or even the upper quartile of academic ability. Apart from the question of whether such persons would also possess other important characteristics (motivation, ability to relate to children, personal warmth), although I see no reason to believe they would not, such a restriction would mean that many of the people in teaching and related careers today would have been closed out of the field, just as they already are from medicine and law. Consider that the majority of high school seniors who wish to enter teaching come not only from families with below average incomes but also rank below mean level on most achievement and aptitude tests taken by college-bound high school seniors. The social costs of restricting entry to the teaching profession would be high. The financial consequences would be staggering. Given such a restriction, school boards would find themselves competing with corporate boards, law firms and hospitals for the most academically talented persons in this society. The present shortage of science and math teachers is slight in comparison to the problems such a policy would create.

I believe that in fact there may be enough public clamor to enduce some school boards to adopt testing but I do not believe the public has the slightest idea what such a policy would mean. What it would mean would be bankruptcy for school systems. We may have teacher testing, but it will not result in any major change in the quality of persons in the field or entering the field because no mass public education system could exist if the acquisition of its professional workforce meant competing for this society's most scarce human resources.

What is the evidence on declining academic ability among new teachers?

The average SAT verbal and math scores of college-bound high school seniors who planned to major in education were well below average for all college-bound seniors tested in 1976 (34 points below average on verbal scores, 43 below average on math scores). The education field ranked lower than the six other largest college majors: business administration and commerce, biological sciences, engineering fields, health and medical fields, physical sciences, and social sciences. Data obtained from the American College Testing Program show essentially the same thing. The ACT English and math scores of the college-bound sample indicating an education major have declined significantly since 1970, and at a more rapid rate that the national college-bound population as a whole. The most significant deterioration in academic quality is in the area of quantitative skills. The ACT English test score declines since 1970 are signficant but are exceeded by mathematics test score declines.

Of 19 fields of study reported by ACT for enrolled college freshmen in 1975-76, education majors were tied for seventeenth place on math scores and fourteenth on English scores. The test scores of elementary and secondary education majors enrolled as college freshmen in 1975-76 have declined significantly as compared with 1970-71 scores.

Among graduating college seniors in the National Longitudinal Study (NLS) sample, class of 1976, education majors ranked fourteenth out of 16 fields (including "other" and "undecided") on SAT verbal scores. The educational SAT-V scores were 46 points below the average of graduating seniors. On the SAT math test, education majors ranked fifteenth among the 16 fields. The education SAT-M scores were 52 points below the average graduating senior. The cumulative college grade-point average shows that education majors ranked twelfth on the 16 majors, with a GPA of 2.83. (The average GPA for all graduating seniors was 2.97.)

On the NLS vocabulary, reading, and math tests, senior education majors as a group were below the population means. In vocabulary, only agriculture-home economics, clerical, and public service majors ranked below education majors. On the reading test, only agriculture-home economics and clerical-office majors ranked below education majors; and on the math test only public service and office-clerical majors ranked lower than education majors as a group.

The Graduate Record Exam verbal and nonverbal test scores among education majors have declined significantly since 1970. Scores of teacher majors were substantially lower than scores of majors in eight other professional fields compared in 1975-76, and teacher scores have fallen at a faster rate than the overall GRE scores since 1970. Finally, National Teacher Examination scores have also declined significantly during the five-year period from 1969-70 to 1974-75 (most recent date for which data are available). The net score decline is 20 points (581-561), significant well beyond chance.

The bad news. A comparison of the NLS sample of education majors, class of 1976, who did and did not find teaching jobs shows that on four of five measures of competence in math, reading, and vocabulary, those not teaching (presumably employed elsewhere) have higher test scores than those teaching. The exception occurs in math, where NLS math scores favor the teachers 55.90 to 55.80. The only differences that approach statistical significance are in the SAT-V and SAT-M scores. Nonetheless, it is important to note that the process of teacher selection and placement does not result in more academically competent teachers being selected.

It is interesting to note that the teaching candidates who were hired did have slightly higher grade-point averages than those not hired (2.86 versus 2.79), perhaps suggesting that employers do use grades as a measure of academic performance and as a guide to hiring teachers.

Selection in College

It has been argued that education faculties sort out the academically weak students prior to student teaching and graduation. The NLS data do not support that argument, at least insofar as basic skills in reading, math, and vocabulary are the selection criteria. Instead, I find that teacher education is the field that shows the least selectivity, from college-bound applicant to completion of degree, among the programs for which comparable data are available (greater selectivity being defined as rising test scores).

In comparing other fields, it is generally the case that among the career-oriented majors selection standards appear to have changed most significantly since 1970. Among the science and science-related fields no apparent change has occurred. With few exceptions, the sciences and engineering freshmen do not differ significantly from the previous year's applicants in either 1970 or 1975. Keeping in mind the limitations of these data, it is apparent that "soft" professional fields are admitting higher percentages of students in 1975 than in 1970, and it is among these students that the largest score declines are occurring. With the exception of psychology and secondary education, the fields that show a 10% or greater decline in English or math scores also show a substantial rise in acceptances.

Where do these students come from?

The findings of George Nolfi et al. indicate that students are not only constrained by test scores in selection of fields of study but also in the selection of colleges. Money also plays a very significant role. Poor students are more likely to choose colleges consonant with their abilities or one they can attend while staying at home. They are not likely to select colleges with average test scores above their own. These findings may help in part to explain the lag in adjustment of preparing institutions to the widely reported surplus of teachers. College Entrance Examination Board data indicate that the majority of teacher education candidates come from families with incomes that are average or below average, and they have relatively low SAT scores. Such students tend to be concentrated in the four-year colleges. Given the constraints of institutional and college major selection among this population, many have no choice other than teacher education if they wish to attend college.

It has been suggested that the mean verbal and math test scores of students majoring in the professions, and particularly in education, might have been negatively affected by an influx of minority students. The assumption is that the professions, specifically education, tend to be open to and attract larger proportions of nonwhite students than the arts and sciences. My analysis of the NLS data supports neither contention: There is not a larger proportion of nonwhite students in education than in other career fields (all career fields having a smaller proportion of minorities than do arts and sciences), and the presence of minorities among graduating education seniors has virtually no effect on test scores.

My findings are consistent with those of the Wirtz Commission (College Entrance Examination Board 1977), which found that students since 1973 have tended to shift to occupational or career majors and that those in the career group have "consistently and markedly lower average scores on the SAT" (verbal and mathematics sections alike) than do those indicating the "arts and sciences choice" (p. 19). Furthermore, within the career-oriented fields, those suffering the greatest market weakness also show the largest score declines. It should be noted that most of the GRE national score decline took place prior to 1970, yet the career-oriented fields, including education, continued to decline significantly, as shown in my work.

Moreover, recent SAT scores show some "inflationary" effects. The Wirtz Commission found that while the predictive validity of the SAT mathematics and verbal scores increased between 1970 and 1974 regarding subsequent college performances, between 1963 and 1973 versions of the SAT tests show an "upward drift" of eight to 12 points. "This means that the declines in the ability the SAT measures have been from eight to 12 points larger than the recorded and reported scores indicate" (p. 9) - a dismal prospect, given the teacher test scores found in my work.

Cause of the Decline

What is the cause of declining skills among new teacher candidates?

The declining test scores of new teacher graduates appear to be, to a large extent, the legacy of the collapsing job market for educators. Since 1970 the public schools have generally been oversupplied with new teacher graduates and since the mid-1970s have been oversupplied in every specialty. Fewer than one-half of the new teacher graduates are being placed in teaching jobs. Depending upon what assumptions one uses, the teacher surplus from 1969 to 1984 will approach 1.4 million. The graduates who do not find teaching jobs show higher rates of unemployment and underemployment than graduates as a whole. As a result, fewer students are majoring in education and among those who do, test scores are significantly lower. The better students are migrating to growth fields.

The education surplus and the decline in academic quality in the field are byproducts of a lag in adjustment by preparing institutions to the well-known decline in birthrate and school enrollments. Analysis of the data reveals a distinct mode of adaptation to the drying up of demand among institutions preparing teachers. The mode of adaptation is so widespread as to be considered universal. I will talk about that in a moment.

The oversupply of teachers has been compounded by four factors: (a) a general oversupply of all college graduates relative to the available slots in the economy; (b) government policies which have further inflated the oversupply condition; that is, by investing more in higher education during the 1970's we simply caused the job market to reward less and less (there was more than a 300% increase in HEA IV monies (more than one-half of all educational majors qualified)); (c) cumulative decisions of institutions, acting individually, in self-interest, to gain a greater share of the shrinking market, had the effect of throwing gasoline on a fire; and (d) there was a much larger college preparatory cohort than in the previous decade. Institutions reacted to declining applications like Jimmy Carter reacts to Ted Kennedy delegate totals. They intensified efforts to recruit and retain students, and at the same time relaxed standards in order to capture more of those who did apply. The primary result in the field of education was a rapid upsurge in the proportion of teachers in the teacher job applicant pool who could not successfully find classroom teaching positions. This condition has been intractable throughout the entire decade, and will likely continue well into the 1980's before abating.

The upsurge in the size of the teacher reserve pool is amplified by the overall collapse of the college job market (a condition documented by Harvard economist, Richard Freeman). Had those sectors of the economy which employ numbers of college graduates, other than the education system itself, continued to grow at the rate observed in the 1960's, teachers in the reserve pool would have had more job opportunities commensurate with their expectations of professional status, if not in teaching. A Massachusetts survey in 1975 showed that of the new teacher graduates not placed as teachers, 80% felt they were not only underemployed but indicated an active interest in finding a teaching job one year after graduation. In effect, they were forced to be part of the active teacher reserve pool because there were no alternatives.

The oversupply of all college graduates produced a domino effect with college graduates being forced down the labor queue, finding themselves underemployed, and in some cases unemployed, and with lower salaries than expected and a sharply reduced return on their investment in a college education. The fields hardest hit, other than education, namely the humanities, arts and social sciences, have responded much like education: in a counter-intuitive way with the same predictable results. I mention the overall problem of the college market because of its obvious connection to the teacher job market.

A shrinking teacher market in the 1970's, rather than the robust one in the 1960's, has compounded the job-hunting problems of arts, humanities and social science graduates, many of whom entered teaching in those golden years of teacher shortages. The coincidental shrinkage of government supported programs other than education, and the general economic recession of the early 1970's, deepened the problems of the teacher market by reducing job options otherwise available to unplaced teachers.

Finally, a schizophrenic national government produced in the 1970's an incentive for more to attend and graduate from college just at a time when government itself was also reducing sharply the support of programs which create growth in employment for college graduates.

Solutions

We are faced with a peculiar problem in education. Any strategy that directly or indirectly produces more new graduates who will enter the teacher applicant pool, without increasing job opportunities for those in that pool, is going to be self-defeating, and viciously so: the more successful such strategies are the more self-defeating they will be. But that is precisely the strategy being followed by colleges. On the other hand, any individual action that reduces output would be suicidal. The driving force behind this problem, simply put, is too many people chasing too few jobs. No one institution can alone solve it, but collectively action thus far has worsened the problem.

The strong temptation is to lean toward capturing a larger share of a shrinking market by offering a teacher preparation program of such superior quality that it will attract more students from the pool who will go into teaching. Even to the extent it is actually possible to create such differences between programs, differences not only that students recognize and respond to but that the job market rewards, the market-share strategy will not solve the larger problem. The better programs would simply get more students, the poor programs fewer, but the net result will still be too many people chasing too few jobs--unless the completion to put out of business. If every program is successful in improving its abilities to capture market share, then the market share strategy is not only defeated but if they all succeed to the extent of enlarging the pool of students who enter the teaching field, the result is disastrous.

Institutions can act to reduce the teacher job applicant pool, and not at the same time further reduce enrollments, only under one condition: they must prepare education majors with skills that enable them to find professionally rewarding positions in non-school settings.

What appears to be inevitable, with or without institutional action, is that states will restrict and lengthen certification requirements. That may be a solution some welcome, but it comes at a time when supply of new graduates is dwindling (the action is about 5-8 years too late). Its effect now may be to worsen the shortage, or actually create one. In the long term, this strategy does buy time by extending the length of preparation for future cohorts and increases costs of preparation for students and institutions. That alone will restrict the job market. However, these graduates will eventually end up in the teacher job applicant pool, but even more intensely invested in classroom teaching.

One of the things I am most concerned about with the effort to regulate the quality of new teacher graduates through extending exit standards is that such an approach will require schools of education to expend more energy strengthening and enlarging the very capacities they least need if they are to create new alternative options for students in educational careers outside of public schools. Schools of education have not responded to the growth of learning needs in industry, health care, social services precisely because the entrenched faculties of education are heavily invested in preparing teachers. The organizational motif of most schools of education I am aware of is suited to preparing teachers and school specialists but not adult educators. In order to respond to the larger education needs of this society, SED's would have to cooperate with other departments, attract new faculties with adult education specialities, and revise the SED curriculum generically. These efforts are not compatible with more demands for certifying school personnel in a more intense and specialized manner.

Another serious obstacle is the manner in which education faculties are rewarded, promoted and granted tenure. Consistent with new certification requirements, the press is toward more intense specialization in research oriented toward traditional work in education, not toward adult education and training. That pressure has intensified as competition for faculty openings has grown. The faculty member who develops an interest in non-traditional studies runs the risk of not appearing to gain recognition for his work among older established faculties both within the college and outside.

In conclusion, it is my view that by far the most serious long term threat posed to the development of an educational profession by the effect of declining resources is injury to the process of selecting the most talented members of each cohort and placing them eventually in roles as leaders in research, administration and teaching. We are challenged to devise a system that attracts the most talented people we can find in education at a time when rewards are at a low premium. The solution, as I see it, is to broaden what is meant by the term, "educator". Talented students must see that they have career options in education or we simply will lose them to other fields. I am optimistic that we can create challenging and rewarding options for educators both in public schools and outside.

2

ADMISSION TO AND RETENTION IN TEACHING THROUGH CERTIFICATION

Thomas F. Ryan

At a time when the proliferation of government regulations has come under increasing attack it seems appropriate to ask, "What is the minimum responsibility of the state director of teacher education and certification?"

A reasonable response suggests, "To insure that persons employed in the schools are not likely to cause harm to the students in their care."

A further question, "Does the current certification system provide that minimal protection?"

While the press may cite evidence of individual failures in this regard, the answer is probably yes!

Let's change the focus for a moment by raising another question. "Is the director of certification responsible for the quality of education in the state?" Put a different way, "Are the oft-cited failures of our schools--declining SAT scores, incidence of vandalism and violence, deterioration of public confidence, etc., etc., etc.--evidence of weakness or inadequacy in the certification code?"

"Is it reasonable to expect, or politically wise to promise, that certification insures safe and healthy environments where individuals of varied racial, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds, possessing the full range of human capability (gifted, talented, handicapped, mainstreamed, steady streamed, etc.) and demonstrating varied stages of development, live harmoniously and work productively to master basic skills, to develop human relations, to comprehend the intricate fabric of several traditional subject matter areas, as well as an increasing number of new mandated additions to the curriculum, and to do this to the satisfaction of an increasingly active consumer-oriented group of parents and students; an economically strapped, politically embattled school board; a suspicious legislature; the omnipresent media; the state assessment program; and the presiding judge?"

A chorus of "yeses," "amens," and "right-ons" at this point may indicate the perception of current mandates. A resounding "yes" may even reflect the impact of an existing executive order. A moment's pause for personal reflection may produce a more reasonable and at the same time professionally sound--"of course not!"

Yet as professional educators we are concerned not only with the protection of students but with the quality of the education they experience. The question before us is, "What role do we play?" "Is the state certification process purely a monitoring or gatekeeping exercise or can the state director play a leadership role?" Indeed, "How can certification contribute to admission and a retention in teaching in a way that contributes to the development of solutions to our educational woes?"

Education is, at its base, a process founded on trust. The recent history of education reveals a systematic removal of the centrality of trust from the enterprise. The most exciting dimension of the current movement called "professional staff development" is the reestablishment of the role of trust as a cornerstone of the process designed to improve school performance.

Equally exciting are the findings of recent research reports known collectively as research on successful schools. An examination of findings of these studies reveals strong support for the hypothesis that while trust will not overcome incompetence, it is essential to the make-up of a successful school--irrespective of the criteria by which success is determined.

It seems to me that we are rapidly entering the third major movement for school improvement during this century. We have already experienced the post World War I attempt to insure quality education through credentialling. Moving from the normal school to the four-year college, credentialling was expanded through the addition of 18, 30 and 45 semester hour programs, master's degrees, etc., in the post World War II era.

Sputnik raised the doubt that credentials assured quality and we embarked on a second great adventure--school improvement through massive curriculum development projects. Some have suggested that the major thrust of this second elaborately funded and definitely short-lived era was to teacher proof the schools. Research and development centers produced curriculum packages, management systems, and organizational patterns, each of which was thought the panacea for some set of woes afflicting education.

So come the seventies and the mounting dissatisfaction which seems proportionate, inversely to the school enrollment and directly to the mounting number of mandates--social and political--placed upon the school. Our response has been to focus on the human element in the equation, particularly the teacher. So comes the professional staff development movement featuring teacher centers, Teacher Corps, state staff development programs, etc. In an age of power politics one should not be surprised at the support or wide acceptance gained by this movement. In my state, Michigan, the legislature, acting on the governor's recommendation and a strong teacher lobby, allocated approximately 2.6 million new dollars for professional staff development this year. More amazing is the fact that amid fiscal crisis and talk of the need to cut almost 200 million dollars from the state budget, the 2.6 million staff development dollars are viewed as "safe."

So where are we? I don't think my state is notably different from yours. If our current situation differs, I suspect time will quickly change the relationship. That is, if you got there first, we'll be there soon. If you have not been blessed with the opportunity, it's probably on the way.

The myriad changes in the organization, process, and content of schooling in our society have caused a blurring of the ultimate purpose of the school--let alone its more immediate objectives. As I wander through schools meeting with teachers and administrators, as I meet with their representatives in state advisory councils, and as I read of them in the daily press, it becomes clear that as Captain Hook said to Mr. Smee, "That's where the canker gnaws!"

It is not unusual to find a school district, whose statement of philosophy emphasizes the development of each individual child to his/her intellectual, social, physical, and aesthetic capability, pursuing a rigid back-to-basics approach and removing all special art, music, and physical education, at least from the elementary school, due to budget cuts and changing multi-grade groups to self-contained age/grade classrooms. These are but symptoms of what I have come to refer to as the five "Ds" which describe the current context of chaos in education as noted below.

Disorientation of Schools	--Confusion about purposes.
Declining Enrollments	--Continuing decline in the 6-18 age cohort until the middle 80s.
Deterioration of the Financial Base	--Collapse of the assured income based on the property tax.
Dictated Curriculum and Organizational Changes	--Curriculum change by legislation. Court-ordered organizational changes.
Demoralization of Professional Staff	--Confusion among individuals who perceive themselves as occupying a position of decreasing responsibility and status while at the same time referred to as professionals.

The five "Ds" shape the context in which teachers who must make literally thousands of decisions each day report:

- programs are added or deleted for reasons which have little apparent relationship to the quality of performance or purpose of schooling;
- lack of support for individual teacher's professional judgement; and
- uncertainty about what we know about learning.

The list goes on but the essence is in those concerns, all of which give rise to the question, "Do we know enough to change the situation?" I believe that we do. That knowledge which is requisite to the definition of a profession is fairly exploding from several different research literatures. Four specific examples--organizaitonal development, school improvement, teacher effectiveness, adult development--are sufficient to provide a basis for the reconceptualization of teacher preparation and continued professional development. They also provide implicit direction for the roles and functions to be assigned to certification in the process.

Schools as Purposive Organizations

Loren Eisley, a consumate educator, a naturalist with the pen of a poet, once likened teaching to the are of sculpture:

> Objects do indeed "part with something of their final character," and so do those who teach.

Ours is an ill-paid profession and we have our share of fools. We, too, like the generation before us, are the cracked, the battered, the malformed products of remoter chisels shaping the most obstinate substance in the universe--the substance of man. Someone has to do it, but perhaps it might be done more kindly, more precisely, and to the extent that we are consciously aware of what we do--even if that thought sometimes congeals our hearts with terror. Or, if we were more conscious of our task, would our hands shake or grow immobilized upon the chisel.[1]

Teachers can ill afford to grow immobilized in their task. Shakily, tentatively, but with confidence based on competence, teachers must move more kindly, more precisely, with full awareness of their functions and sensitivity to their outcomes to achieve the purposes of education.

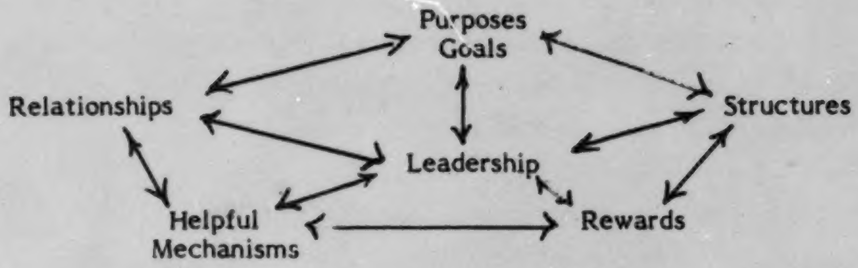
It is helpful it keep in mind that, despite much evidence to the contrary, schools are indeed purposive organizations. They exist as complex structures made up of huge numbers of constituent elements. Schools in turn become elements in larger, more complex local, intermediate, and state education systems. The fact that schools are labor-intensive enterprises gives rise to a further complication. That is, the human members of the organization are, in turn, elements in other organizations such as unions, electorates, special interest groups, etc. Often these overlapping memberships are in competing organizations. Thus, a junior high school health teacher assigned responsibility for reproductive education may find conflict with his/her position as a member of a right-to-life group. Similarly, an educator active in a movement to increase economy in government may encounter difficulty during the campaign for a new operational levy.

Traditional assumptions about the obvious efficacy of schooling, coupled with notions about the dedication of teachers, obscured the need to insure clarity of purpose and to emphasize the critically important role of the teacher. Recent attempts to apply directly procedures developed in the business and industrial sphere have further confused the issue. It may be helpful to reestablish a frame of reference which identifies the major elements of the organization we call school and highlights the interactive nature of the enterprise.

A simple paradigm known as the Six Box Model, developed by Weisbord[2] and described by Sikes[3], provides a way of looking at schools as organizations.

Figure 1

Six Box Model



The model simply reminds us that all organizations have a minimal set of critical elements. The absence of one will doom the organization. The elements are interrelated, problems in one hamstring productive activity. Recent reports of research in education may be seen as indicators of appropriate direction for the specification of content and approach in each of the six elements.

Purpose and Goals: Emerging Research About Successful Schools

One of the questions which has most intrigued educators during the past half century is, "What do we know about successful schools?" Attempts to answer the question have traditionally focused on the collection of mass amounts of data determining central tendencies, such as mean scores for specific populations of students, and then conducting an analysis of procedures designated as contributing to the score. The results have been disappointing at best.

However, during the past five years a number of researchers operating independently in the United States and Great Britain have adopted a new approach with remarkable results.

The basis of the approach is to identify a set of schools judged successful on the basis of a given set of selection criteria. Criteria differ markedly from research to research but often include: scores on standardized tests; reported IQ scores; student grades; perceptions of parents, teachers and students; etc. The researchers do not limit their study to successful schools however. Using the same criteria they identify a set of unsuccessful schools. Both sets--successful and unsuccessful--become the subject of a socio-anthropological study involving extensive interviews with individuals in the schools, as well as the collection of additional quantified data.

The exciting aspect of this emerging literature is that it appears that irrespective of selection criteria, successful schools have a common set of characteristics which unsuccessful schools lack

Successful schools

-- are run rather than just running.

-- have principals as instructional leaders who have high expectations for their students and staff.

-- have teachers who expect students to be successful.

-- have a highly articulated curriculum.

(The executive summary of one of the major research efforts is included as Appendix B.) It would appear that a school staff might improve its performance by attending to these results, particularly as they affect the purpose of the school and the procedures used to achieve those purposes. It is equally apparent that these research-based findings should shape teacher preparation programs.

Structures: What do we Know About Teacher Effectiveness

An immense amount of information about learning has emerged in the past ten years. Perhaps the most exciting new knowledge emerges from the body of related research and writing commonly referred to as split brain research. Great understanding of the function of our brain and how it's potential can be realized in the classroom offers tremendous new challenges to teachers.

On a more mundane yet equally important level, studies of teacher effectiveness provide more solid support for education practice. Aside from the obvious value of reaffirming our belief that teachers do make a difference, studies such as those reviewed and reported by Denemark and Nutter (Appendix A) point the way to specific procedures which have a beneficial effect in the classroom.

Relationships: What do we Know About Adult Development?

Concern about the problems facing individual adults in our society has resulted in an emerging research-based literature revealing much about how adults develop. The popular success of works like Passages[4] has given way to Seasons of a Man's Life[5], Transformations[6], and so on, each of which provides new insights to the needs and potentialities of teachers. (Bibliographic notation and additional references are found in Appendix C.) Each provides indications of factors which must be considered when attempting to maximize the effect of groups of adults functioning together in purposive organizations such as schools.

These indicators become particularly important as we encounter school staffs which are increasingly more stable and fully certified and whose last professional growth experience may be slipping further and further away.

Rethinking the Development of Professional Educators

What should all of this tell us about preparing individuals for careers in education and facilitating their continuing professional development throughout their career? We might begin by examining some assumptions about teacher preparation.

NOW	NEEDED
Teacher preparation is a compartmentalized activity which begins and is largely completed during four years of undergraduate education.	Teacher preparation is a long-term task which begins when an individual opts for education as a career and continues as long as that individual pursues that goal.
An individual becomes a teacher by deovting between 29 (secondary) and 46 (elementary) credit hours of a 120 hour undergraduate program to professional studies.	An individual may qualify as a probationary teacher on the basis of demonstrated performance of a minimal set of generic teaching competencies, background in liberating studies, and commitment to education based on experience with a variety of age groups in several settings.
Teacher preparation is the responsibility of the faculty of the SCDEs.	Teacher preparation is a responsibility shared by faculty of SCDEs with colleagues in SEAs, LEAs, and professional organizations.

Teacher preparation programs should prepare individuals to "fit into" local school programs.	Teacher preparation programs should prepare individuals who will actively shape school programs.
Teacher preparation candidates are among the academically less able students in the IHE.	Teacher preparation candidates should be selected carefully from among the most able in several areas of knowledge and performance.
SCDEs should adhere to the liberal arts model of the university.	SCDEs should assert their roles as professional schools.
SCDEs have little to say about schooling in the "real world."	SCDEs should reestablish "influencing schooling" as a primary objective.

Acceptance of the validity of assumptions labelled NEEDED leads to the reconceptualization of teacher preparation and professional development. That reconceptualization will of necessity require dramatic changes in our approach to the certification and licensure of teachers. (Note: In order to avoid the highly politicized issues surrounding the concept of licensure, the focus in this presentation will be on certification.)

A Conceptual Framework for Teacher Preparation and Professional Development

Teacher preparation programs across the nation are remarkably similar. A national study completed in 1978 reported the most monotonous sameness in both content and organization among the 1,300 teacher preparation institutions studied.[7] The ironic feature of this sameness is the apparent lack of internal cohesion in particular programs or among programs at various institutions. This characteristic becomes critical when we consider the fact that while ultimate responsibility for the certification of the competence of teachers may reside with the state education agency, the approved-program approach moves the effective locus of control to the SCDEs. Gaps in the program-approval process contribute to wide variance in program content with consequent variance in the constellation of competencies and the quality of graduates. This situation may be viewed optimistically as one which provides needed alternatives to reach a common goal, i.e., competent teachers for successful schools. Reality, however, points to the absence of clear specification of the goal.

In Michigan, as in other states, these weaknesses, coupled with concerns about the general quality of schooling, have led to pressures for reform. Those pressures have led to the appointment of a Certification Code Commission to revise the entire code and a Quality Assurance Task Force to revise the program-approval process. We have also seen recent changes in the code to include consideration of conditions of handicapping and specific credit hour requirements in the teaching of reading. Interestingly enough, as the proposed reading requirements are progressing through administrative channels, a bill requiring almost identical content has passed one house of the legislature and remains active in the other. In addition, proposals for special certification for middle school teachers, teachers of autistic children, and reading specialists have been referred to the State Advisory Council on Teacher Preparation and Certification.

Legislative and executive concern about school performance has resulted in the appropriation of 3.2 million dollars to support local professional staff development programs. An additional State Advisory Council on Professional Development has been created to provide advice to the State Board of Education on these issues.

Each of the cited activities is an honest attempt to improve our system of education. Each of its own way contributes to the general confusion. There is a clear need for a conceptual framework to bind these activities together. Such a conceptual framework must include consideration for the following variables: content, format, time, space, responsibility, support, and rewards which are dealt with in the description of each segment presented later.

At the Beginning: Three Premises for the Restructuring of Teacher Education

To begin with, it is suggested that teacher preparation and professional development be viewed as a continuous process which begins when an individual opts for education as a career and continuous as long as (s)he maintains that objective. Thus, the first premise in the proposed framework is that it is a CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM.

The total process proposed here may be separated into five segments: preeducation, professional preparation, probationary, professional practice, and renewal. The process fits logically into a sixteen-year time span. A three-year preeducation program followed by two years of professional preparation and a two-year probationary period make up the initial sequence of development. The fourth segment, professional practice, would be linked to the tenure process and the fifth segment, renewal, would be a recurring set of six-year cycles. The second premise is that the program is a FIVE SEGMENT, SIXTEEN-YEAR PROCESS.

Among the most destructive ideas to pervade education in this country is the notion that a new graduate of a teacher education program is indeed a teacher. More preposterous is the notion that such a graduate might not only be a teacher but a specialist.

I propose that we return to a single certificate at the undergraduate level. That is, individuals completing programs approved using the process described later would be certified as teachers acceptable for probationary employment. My intent is to reemphasize the fact that teaching is the most important function in education. The emphasis would be on preparing teachers first. Additional endorsements would be added in post-baccalaureate programs. The third premise is that THE UNDERGRADUATE PREPARATION PROGRAM LEADS TO A SINGLE-CERTIFICATE TEACHER.

In summary, I propose a continuous development program which includes five specific segments which take sixteen years to complete. I further propose that all graduates of under-graduate preparation programs receive the same probationary certificate with initial and renewable professional certification dependent upon successful performance.

The Five Segment, Continuous Development Program for Teachers

Each of the five segments--preeducation, professional preparation, probationary, professional practice, and professional renewal--is described in this section. In each segment recommendations are presented in terms of time, responsibility, locus, content, format, and reward. The process for entrance to and exit from each segment is also described.

Preprofessional Segment—Liberating Teachers

Among the factors which have shaped the undergraduate curriculum during the past decade none has been more important than the continuing knowledge explosion and the high degree of specialization it brings to academic disciplines. Expansion and refinement of instruction has in many cases forced students into a lock-step program at least within their major area of study. Students who seek to be teachers often find it difficult to "squeeze in" their professional sequence among the requirements of their academic major.

It is time to define a preeducation curriculum which serves four purposes:

1. The preeducation curriculum should provide students an opportunity to master a particular academic discipline and to gain the confidence which accompanies "knowing one's stuff."
2. The preeducation curriculum should provide students opportunities to know how they know; that is, it should be rich in experiences which, while focusing on subject matter, emphasize learning how we acquire and validate knowledge.
3. The preeducation curriculum should provide a range of experiences in which students explore in some depth academic disciplines which balance as well as extend or complement their major area of study.
4. The preeducation curriculum should provide ample opportunity to demonstrate competence in written as well as oral communication and reading.

I do not wish to suggest a redone general studies program. Preeducation students must pursue subjects in some depth in order to be able to use the knowledge in the classroom and in some breadth in order to gain perspective. Clearly, this segment requires an extensive time commitment.

I, therefore, propose that the preeducation segment constitute the first three years of undergraduate school for students seeking careers in education. Although responsibility for content and format would reside with approproate faculty outside the SCDE, students should be guided through the process by a professional education advisor assigned by the SCDE. The reward upon completion of this segment would be eligibility to enter the professional preparation program.

Professional Preparation—Acquiring Knowledge and Skill

The professional preparation segment of professional development is appropriately based in institutions of higher education. Primary support for preparation should be provided by teacher educators located in SCDEs. Three changes in the traditional approach should, however, occur:

> First, the governance of preparation should involve all institutions or agencies which affect or are affected by the program. Involvement must include participation in the establishment of admissions as well as exit requirements.
>
> Second, responsibility for the preparation programs should extend beyond college and university faculty to include educators practicing in K-12 schools. This change implies the establishment of broadly representative curriculum committees and teaching teams.
>
> Third, while remaining campus based, preparation would be field oriented. Preparation is a shared responsibility.

The professional preparation segment assumes relationship to a role which the individual enters on completion. A role implies knowledge, skills, and attitudes, i.e., competencies. The broadly defined role of teacher suggests a set of broadly defined competencies. A minimum set of competence areas should include:

Knowledge of Self
Knowledge of Content
Knowledge of Human Development and Learning
Ability to Communicate
Ability to Manage Instruction
Ability to Evaluate Instruction

Each competence area should be refined by educators sharing responsibility for professional preparation in a particular SCDE. Although format might differ from place to place, the competence areas would provide curricular threads to insure comparability.

Admission to the professional preparation segment should be contingent not only upon completion of the preeducation curriculum but also upon satisfactory demonstration of basic skills in reading, writing, and oral communication. We might expect that students entering the professional preparation segment would have demonstrated these competencies during the three year preeducation segment.

(Note: Although each SCDE should be allowed to define its own curriculum, each should also be required to give reasonable assurance that their program meets minimal standards. A mechanism to deal with that concern is discussed in pages 29 through 36.)

The suggested competence areas imply a change in perspective for teacher educators which should influence decisions regarding specific content, format, and field placement. Briefly stated, the perspective ought to be:

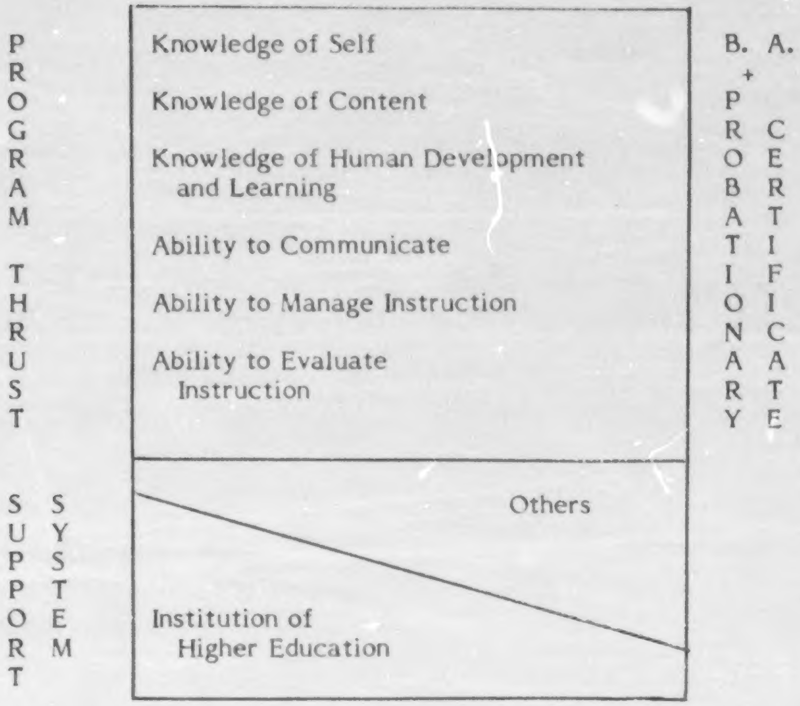
- the teacher in preparation is a developing human being interacting with other developing human beings in a variety of roles and contexts.
- the teacher in preparation seeks a career as a member of the professional staff of a social institution which has evolved over time, being both a reflection influenced by and an influence on the community in which it exists.
- teaching is an art which is supported by a scientifically valid and humane body of knowledge which teachers in preparation must seek to master.

Each professional preparation program should provide students opportunities to work with varied groups of students in a variety of settings. Exposure to students of diverse socioeconomic, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds, age and ability levels, and conditions of handicap are necessary for students to determine whether they have a real commitment to education and where their preference for placement might be.

During the professional preparation segment, emphasis must shift gradually from knowledge of self to each of the other competence areas, arriving finally at the ability to evaluate (see Figure 2). The process should be completed in a two-year period which would include an extensive intern-like placement.

Figure 2

Professional Preparation
Two Years


PROGRAM THRUST
Knowledge of Self
Knowledge of Content
Knowledge of Human Development and Learning
Ability to Communicate
Ability to Manage Instruction
Ability to Evaluate Instruction
B. A. + PROBATIONARY CERTIFICATE
SUPPORT SYSTEM
Others
Institution of Higher Education

Successful completion of this two-year professional preparation would depend upon the positive recommendation of a professional review committee which should include representatives of the teaching profession and potential employers as well as faculty of the SCDE. There task would be to assure that the following goals had been achieved:

1. Graduates of professional preparation programs should know who they are personally and professionally and be sensitive to the developing human beings with whom they interact.

2. Graduates of teacher preparation programs should understand the role of schooling in our society and be committed to its continual improvement.

3. Graduates of teacher preparation programs should demonstrate ability to organize instruction in a variety of contexts using appropriate instructional techniques and support materials.

4. Graduates of teacher preparation programs should through direct experience have expanded their skills and understandings of particular aspects of schooling (e.g., vocational schooling, conditions of handicapping, etc.).

The professional review committee should recommend award of the baccalaureate degree and issuance of a probationary teaching certificate.

The issuance of the probationary teaching certificate would permit the recipient to be employed in a school in that state for a period of two years.

Probationary Period--Demonstrating Competence

Current preparation and certification practices seek to place the new teacher in a specific niche within the education setting. The dynamic of change in contemporary education often makes this approach nonfunctional. Rapid changes in enrollment patterns, organizational patterns, and curriculum require planned flexibility.

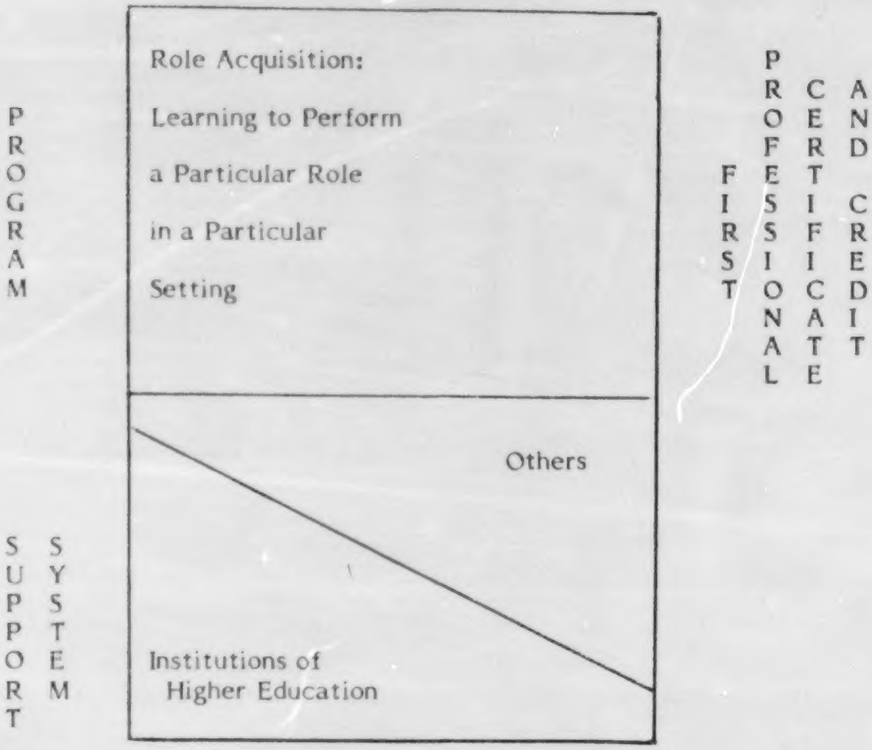
This recommendation puts the onus on the local school district to determine the characteristics it requires of probationary teachers and allows the LEA the flexibility to place such individuals in settings deemed most appropriate based on their needs and the probationary teacher's background and interest. Such a placement provides up to two years of continued preparation on the job.

Knowledge and skills acquired during the professional preparation segment would be demonstrated in a variety of settings. Whether general or specific, in a campus-testing situation or a school-demonstration site, they lack one critical element--responsibility that accompanies employment. Employment carries with it the responsibility to apply knowledge and skills to perform a particular role in a specific setting. Thus, the transition from participant in a preparation program to employment as a teacher is often accompanied by difficulties of adjustment. Traditionally, these difficulties are recognized by the imposition of a probationary period of three years prior to the award of tenure and continuing certification. The system assumes the need for special support during the transition period, but support is often inadequate. There is a clear and pressing need to provide support for newly employed teachers for a period long enough to give reasonable assurance of a match between person and position.

Thus, a two year probationary period is proposed during which graduates of professional preparation programs, attempting to apply knowledge and skill in a specific role in a specific setting, would receive systematic support. This role-specific support would be provided through a coordinated effort involving local education agencies, institutions of higher education, and representatives of the teaching profession and the state department of education. Figure 3 graphically describes the probationary period. The activities in support of the probationary teacher provide a natural linkage to continuing professional staff development programs for all school staff members.

Figure 3

Probationary Period
Two Years


PROGRAM
Role Acquisition:
Learning to Perform
a Particular Role
in a Particular
Setting
FIRST PROFESSIONAL CERTIFICATE AND CREDIT
Others
SUPPORT SYSTEM
Institutions of
Higher Education

Successful completion of the probationary period would be determined by a professional review committee consisting of the teacher's supervisor, a representative of the teaching profession, and a representative of a SCDE providing support for the probationary teacher. The professional review committee would recommend continued probation in the same setting, another probationary assignment in a different setting (i.e., different grade level, subject matter, etc.), counseling out of teaching and into a different career path, or, most optimistically, continued employment by the school district, issuance of an initial professional certificate by the state, and, potentially, some amount of credit toward a post-baccalaureate degree from the IHE. Such a positive recommendation would require that the committee affirm that the following goals had been achieved:

1. The probationary teacher should demonstrate understanding of and sensitivity to the needs of students.
2. The probationary teacher should demonstrate ability to plan for and manage instruction designed to achieve the purposes of the role to which he/she has been assigned.
3. The probationary teacher should demonstrate a continuing commitment to education as a profession and to his/her own continued professional growth.

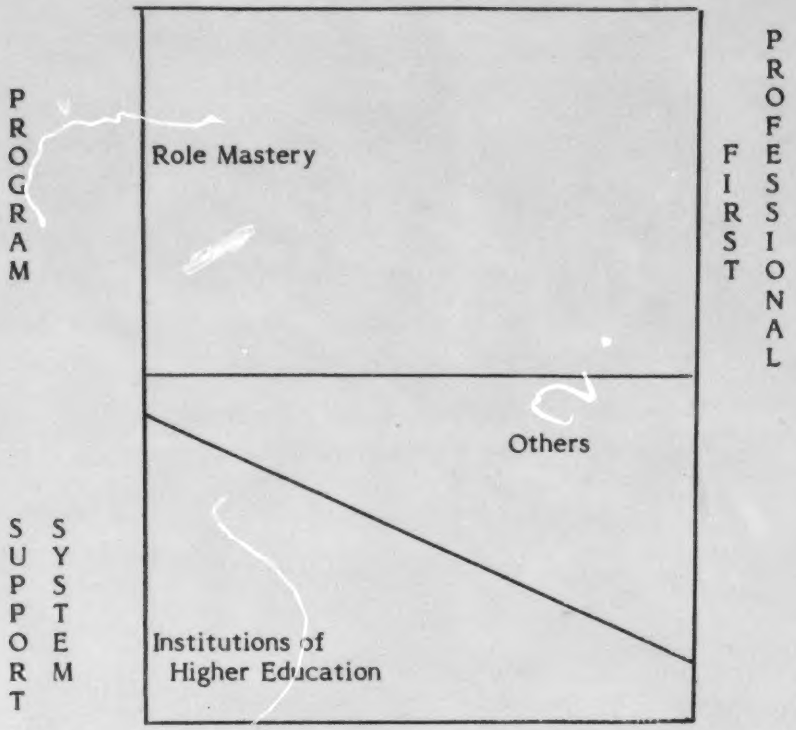
Professional Practice—Mastering a Role

The two-year probationary period affords the neophyte an opportunity to become familiar with the application of knowledge and skill acquired during the preparation program. The probationary period may be seen as a role-acquisition period during which the teacher demonstrates ability to perform a particular role according to standards established by a particular context. The assumption is that any given teaching role, e.g., primary grade, secondary mathematics, etc., will vary according to the characteristics of the school district and building in which it is performed. It is further assumed, as stated earlier, that the need for direct support continues through the probationary period.

Award of the first professional certificate permits the teacher to enter the role mastery and expansion phase of professional development. During this proposed three-year period the teacher would continue to demonstrate proficiency in practice.

Figure 4

Probationary Period Three Years



Once again at the end of the professional practice segment a professional review committee consisting of the individual's supervisor, a representative of the teaching profession, and a SCDE based teacher educator would recommend the teacher candidate to the school district for tenure and to the state for a renewable professional certificate. Positive recommendation would be contingent upon achievement of the goals set out below including the projection of a personal career development plan.

1. The professional practitioner demonstrates ability to conduct effective learning activities over time.
2. The professional practitioner demonstrates involved commitment to his/her students, school, community, and profession.
3. The professional practitioner demonstrates ability to enhance the learning experience of students placed in his/her care.
4. The professional practitioner demonstrates ability to project a personal development plan which provides opportunities for growth and the extension of professional competence.

Successful completion of the professional practice period could be acknowledged by the employer's recommendation that tenure be awarded. Credit in a variety of forms appropriate to the activities pursued during the period would also be awarded. Such credit might include academic credits applicable to a graduate degree or increment credit awarded by the school system.

Completion of the professional practice period would mark a significant step in an individual's professional development. Award of tenure and a renewable professional certificate with appropriate endorsement based on performance would signal the recognition of a competent professional educator qualified to practice. It would not, however, signal the end of professional development. The context in which the professional practices is subject to continuous change. New knowledge, materials, and students often create new expectations for the practitioner. Thus, there is a constant need to develop new knowledge and skills. The professional development program must continue.

Professional Renewal—Continuing Personal and Professional Growth

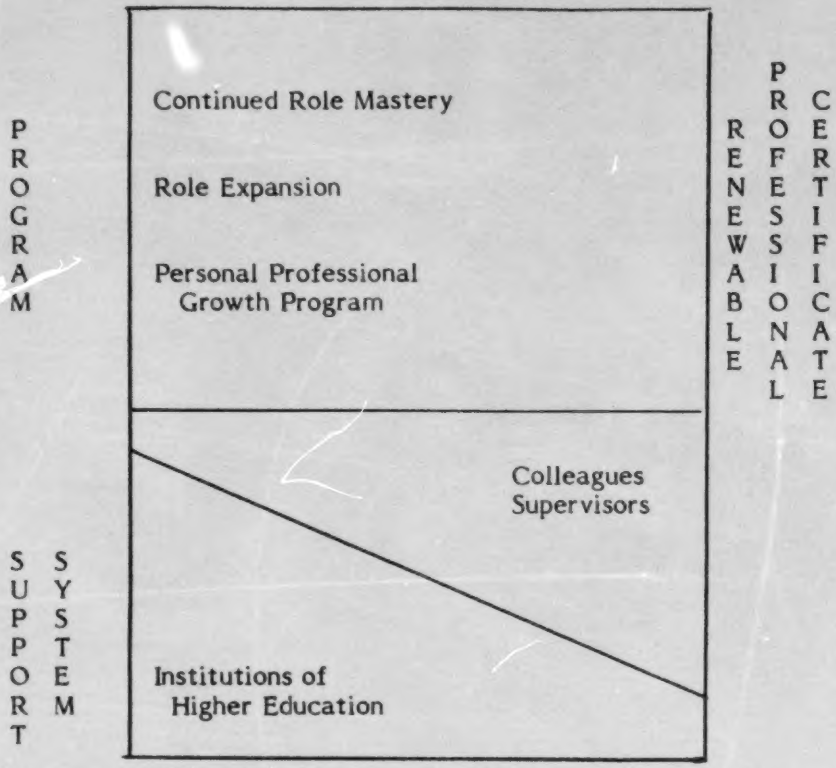
In order to insure constant renewal, the certificate awarded at the end of the professional practice period would be valid for only six years. During the six-year period the focus would be on continued role mastery and expansion. The individual might negotiate a new or related assignment. Emphasis would continue to be placed on individuals performing specific roles in specific settings supported by the combined efforts of peers, local education agencies, institutions of higher education, and the state department of education.

The emphasis during the professional renewal segment would be on continuing to develop according to the individual's career plan. That plan, developed by the individual with the assistance of his/her supervisor, should focus on the individual's continuing professional development while at the same time reflecting the needs of the school.

The individual professional development plan not only insures continued pursuit of growth but contributes to the formation of a staff development program for the entire school building. (Figure 5 represents the renewal segment.)

Figure 5

Professional Renewal
Six Years


PROGRAM
Continued Role Mastery
Role Expansion
Personal Professional Growth Program
RENEWABLE
PROFESSIONAL
CERTIFICATE
Colleagues Supervisors
SUPPORT SYSTEM
Institutions of Higher Education

The renewal segment when taken with the professional practice segment offers opportunities for the teacher to negotiate a reassignment. This built in flexibility recognizes two facts. First, productive activity in any occupation over an extended period of time is enhanced by varying functions and responsibilities. Second, changing needs of school districts often require reassignment of staff. Such reassignments often involve teachers placed in situations based on certified minors which have never been used. Structured exploration, during which a teacher's previous position is protected, could serve both ends and result in recommendations for special endorsements to the teaching certificate.

During the fifth year of the renewal period the professional review committee would again become active. The committee would evaluate the teacher's progress according to the personal growth plan, revise it, and project a new plan for the next six-year period. The total professional development program is described in Figure 6.

Figure 6

FIVE SEGMENT CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

	PREEDUCATION	PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION	PROBATION	PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE	PROFESSIONAL RENEWAL
ime	3 Years	2 Years	2 Years	3 Years	6 Years
onsible gent	· IHE Faculty Major department for course work SCDE for advisement	· SCDE Shared with teacher educators in LEAs, SEAs & professional organizations	· LEA shared with teacher educators in SCDEs, SEAs, and professional organizations	· LEA with assistance from Teaching Profession and SCDE	· Individual Teacher with Assistance from LEA supervisor Teaching Colleagues SCDE personnel Others
cus of ogram	· IHE	· SCDE Campus based Field Oriented	· LEA Initial Assignment Role-function	· LEA Assigned Position(s)	· LEA Assigned Position(s)
ent of ogram	· Academic Disciplines Major plus study to broaden and balance	· Competencies Knowledge of: self development content Ability to: communicate manage evaluate	· Role Acquisition Knowledge and skill applied in specific role and seting with direct support	· Role Mastery Mastering a specific role in a particular setting over time Role Expansion Demonstrating competence in different roles in different settings	· Personal Professional Growth Planned addition of knowledge and skil to meet personal as well as organizatic needs Personal Professional growth plan subject to regular revision
mat of ogram	· Appropriate to course	· Varied according to purpose of activity	* * * * * * * Determined by the Particular Assignment(s)* * * * * *		
ard for pletion Segment	· Eligibility for Admission to professional preparation program	· B.A. Degree · Probationary Teaching Certificate	· 1st professional certificate · Credit toward advanced degree	· 1st Renewable Professional Teaching Certificate · Endorsements if Appropriate · Credit toward Advanced Degree · Tenure	· 2nd, 3rd, . . . Renewable Professional Teaching Certificate · Endorsements if Appropriate · Master of Teaching Degree
cedures for ission ention xit	· Admission via IHE policy · Retention and Exit According to policies of academic departments	· Admission & Exit Requirements Established by: · SCDE faculty and · Reps. of Teaching Profession & · Reps. of Employers	· Employment as per LEA procedures Evaluation by Professional Review Committee, made up of supervisor. rep. of teaching profession & SCDE rep.	· Continued employment as per LEA · Evaluation by professional review committee (PRC)	· Continued employment as per LEA · Evaluation review by PRC
	SCDE Advisement Staff Screens Admission	Graduation Committee Recommends to IHE for B.A. to SEA for Probationary certificate	PRC Recommends to LFA re employment to SEA for 1st Certificate, to IHE for Credit	PRC Recommends to LEA re employment, to SEA for renewable certificate, to IHE for credit	PRC Recommends to LEA re employment, to SEA for 2nd . . . renewable certificate and endorsements to IHE fe credit, to teacher re revisions in professional growth plan
port tem	· IHE Faculty	Representatives of the Teaching Profession, Supervisors, Administrators, Professional Staff Development Centers and Programs . . . Institutions of Higher Education Acting Through Schools, Colleges, and Departments of Education			

Some Effects—Intended

Teaching is reestablished as the primary activity of professional educators.

The currently compartmentalized system to support instruction is reintegrated with the focus on the individual teacher.

Professional growth is focused on individual and organizational needs facilitated by a variety of collaborating agencies and organizations rather than on the SCDEs graduate curriculum or the LEAs salary schedule.

SCDEs institutionalize responsibility for providing continuing support for their graduates.

SEAs become facilitators of the process assuring its integrity by exerting leadership in establishing effective interrelationships between individuals, organizations, and agencies involved in the preparation and professional development process.

The State Director's of Teacher Education and Certification Leadership Role in Facilitating Admission to and Retention in Teaching

State directors of teacher education and certification have today an unparalleled opportunity to influence the quality of schooling in the nation. I would argue that they have a responsibility to exert leadership which goes well beyond the mandate of their office.

Twenty years of pressure to meet increasing demands for more teachers in more and more narrowly defined specialty areas created immense pressures on all elements of the teacher preparation system. Record keeping alone made active leadership in areas of program development difficult at best. Among the results are certification systems which appear to roll along on their own momentum and teacher preparation programs which in general have exhibited similar drift. Occasionally during the past ten years the system has received a significant jolt, usually from an external force. Evidence of such trauma includes Professional Practices Acts establishing licensure boards, mandated requirement of teacher examinations, and fifth-year programs for initial certification. There remains a lack of organizational cohesion to the preparation of teachers.

NASDTEC has provided leadership through the promulgation of standards for curricula in teacher preparation and support for projects such as the Interstate Compact on Teacher Certification.

I recommend that the Association move forward to bring cohesion to teacher preparation by supporting the program described in this paper. Anticipating the concern that state certification officers need a mechanism to fulfill the requirements, I put forth the following proposal.

In Michigan we are currently involved in attempts to implement a system of quality assurance in teacher preparation. The plan which would in effect replace the current program approval process emanated from the teacher preparation and certification service area of our State Department of Education. The State Board of Education has accepted the basic plan with the exception of the requirement of state developed tests of knowledge and has created an implementation task force.

The proposed System of Quality Assurance is described in Figure 7.

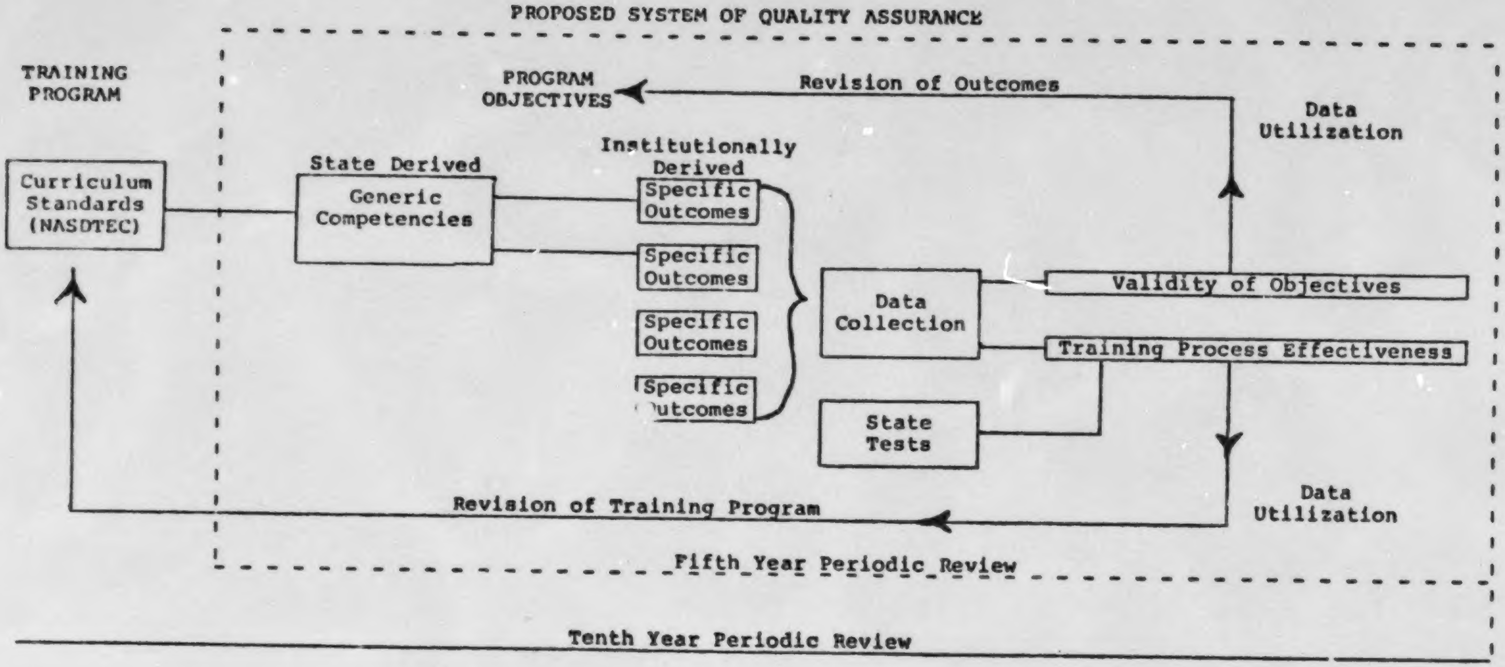

PROPOSED SYSTEM OF QUALITY ASSURANCE
TRAINING PROGRAM
PROGRAM OBJECTIVES
Revision of Outcomes
Data Utilization
Curriculum Standards (NASDTEC)
State Derived
Generic Competencies
Institutionally Derived
Specific Outcomes
Specific Outcomes
Specific Outcomes
Specific Outcomes
Data Collection
Validity of Objectives
Training Process Effectiveness
State Tests
Data Utilization
Revision of Training Program
Fifth Year Periodic Review
Tenth Year Periodic Review

Figure 7

The flow of the system is very direct. NASDTEC standards would be adopted by the State Board of Education as the basis for teacher preparation. Using those standards, a set of generic competencies for each certification area would be defined and similarly approved. Institutions wishing to prepare teachers would be required to derive specific outcomes for each generic competence in each certification category. SCDEs would also be required to test the reliability of their preparation process and the validity of specific outcomes, generic competencies, and the NASDTEC standards through follow-up studies of graduates. The proposal includes stipulation of a fifth-year review to ascertain that all elements of the plan are in place and functioning and a tenth-year review for program approval.

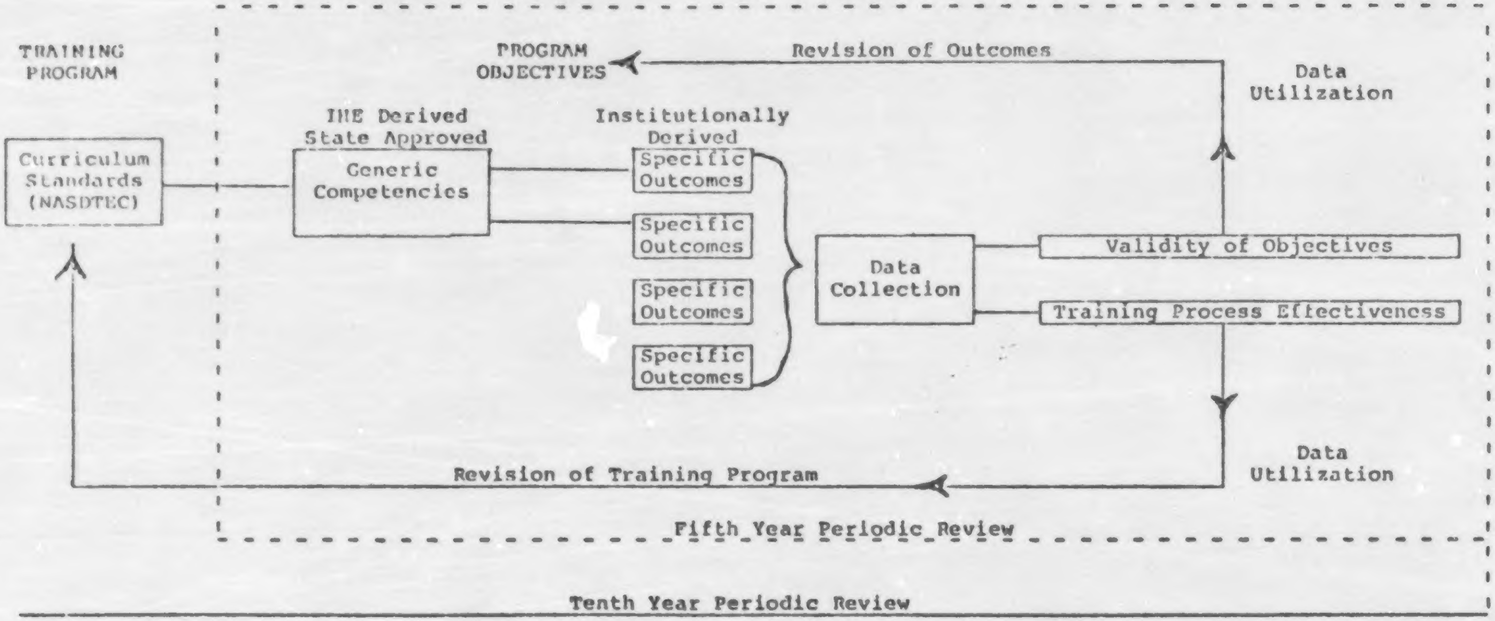
As might be expected, I would propose several modifications in the system. They are:

> That a Teacher Education Council, broadly representative of the teaching profession, school administrators, school board members, parents, and students as well as faculty, be established in each SCDE with an approved teacher preparation program to oversee those programs.
>
> That generic competencies be institutionally derived from the NASDTEC referent and state approved.
>
> That the requirement of state developed tests of knowledge be removed in light of the institution's mandate to carry out thorough, long-term evaluations of its students, graduates, and programs.
>
> That the process which focuses on the undergraduate preparation of teachers be expanded to include coverage of teachers in the entire process of teacher preparation and professional development described earlier.

(Figure 7a reflects these changes.)

REVISED

PROPOSED SYSTEM OF QUALITY ASSURANCE



TRAINING PROGRAM
Curriculum Standards (NASDTEC)
PROGRAM OBJECTIVES
Revision of Outcomes
Data Utilization
IHE Derived State Approved
Generic Competencies
Institutionally Derived
Specific Outcomes
Specific Outcomes
Specific Outcomes
Specific Outcomes
Data Collection
Validity of Objectives
Training Process Effectiveness
Data Utilization
Revision of Training Program
Fifth Year Periodic Review
Tenth Year Periodic Review

Figure 7a

The Quality Assurance System as modified has several major advantages:

> Directors of teacher preparation and certification provide leadership within their legal mandate while at the same time allowing institutional autonomy for teacher preparation institutions.
>
> Governance of teacher preparation is expanded to include representatives of the individuals, organizations, and agencies which are most directly affected by the programs and their quality.
>
> Built-in data collection at the program level provides ample opportunities for local program revision. They also permit the state director to conduct analyses of combined data to determine directions which can shape recommendations for statewide changes in programs and procedures.

In summary, I believe that teacher preparation must undergo dramatic change to meet the needs of contemporary society. Those changes will require a new coalition of educators working together to assure quality in the total developmental process. The approach proposed in this paper provides a cohesive framework within which to begin. That framework specifies functions based on the unique competence of each participant and the thrust that each will fulfill his/her responsibility.

Specifically, we must expect and hold responsible the schools, colleges, and departments of education for the preparation and continued support of liberally educated, minimally competent, entry-level professionals committed to education as a career.

Local education agencies must be expected and held responsible for creative management to insure quality educational experiences for each individual served through the employment and continued development of competent, caring professional educators.

State education agencies, particularly through the directors of teacher preparation and certification, must be expected and held responsible for providing leadership in the protection of the safety of students and their right to complete, quality education by mobilizing the coalition of forces necessary to insure success.

FOOTNOTES

1. Eisely, Loren. *Night Country*. New York: Scribner, 1971.

2. Weisbord, M. R. "Organizational Diagnosis: Six Places to Look for Trouble With or Without a Theory." *Group and Organizational Studies*, 4 (December 1976), 430-447.

3. Sikes, Walter. "Organizational Diagnosis: A Key Administrative Skill" in Shtogren, John A., Ed., *Administrative Development in Higher Education*. Richmond, VA: Higher Education Leadership and Management Society, Inc., 1978.

4. Sheehy, Gail. *Passages: Predictable Crises of Adult Life*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1974.

5. Levinson, Daniel J., et al. *The Seasons of a Man's Life*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1978.

6. Gould, Roger L. *Transformations: Growth and Change in Adult Life*. New York: Simon & Schuster, 1978.

7. Howey, Kenneth; Yarger, S.; and Joyce B. *Improving Teacher Education*. Washington, D.C.: Association of Teacher Educators, 1978.

APPENDIX A

This review of research on teacher effect is excerpted from "The Case of Extended Programs of Initial Teacher Preparation," an unpublished manuscript presented by George Denemark, Dean, College of Education, University of Kentucky, to the Forum of Education Organization Leaders, September 7, 1979, at Arlington, Virginia. Norma Nutter, research associate at the University of Kentucky, assisted in the preparation of the manuscript.

Teachers Make a Difference

While emphasizing the point that teachers do make a difference, McDonald (1976) urged realism regarding the probable magnitude of the effects of teaching. He suggested that research identifying socioeconomic status and aptitude as correlating with pupil performance scores indicates that teacher influence in many circumstances may account for only about twenty-five percent of the variance in pupil achievement, an amount approximately equal to the estimated effects of socioeconomic status. His observations suggest both that "our expectations for teacher effects should be both more modest and more sanguine" and that our frequent findings of "no significant difference" in educational research result from looking for the impact of teachers in the total arena of student behavior rather than in that proportion which may be properly assumed to be subject to teacher influence.

Research on Teacher Effectiveness

Recent studies by a number of researchers indicate that specific teacher behaviors in the classroom, combined with appropriate instructional content and classroom climate, are highly instrumental in promoting some types of learning as well as classroom order. A brief review of recent research findings relating to these elements follows. The review is intended to be suggestive of the promise of research on teaching for the improvement of teaching and for the design of teacher preparation programs.

Thomas L. Good, a major figure in the field of research on teacher effectiveness, proposed that a data base for the content of teacher education is developing, that it is now in the process of moving from a speculative base to a conceptual and empirical base, and that it is substantial enough to provide content and direction for teacher education:

> (Based on process-product studies) classroom management, direct instructional principles, and information about teacher expectation effects would appear to be sensible parts of teacher education programs. Teaching candidates need to read (and to see) some of the positive possibilities of schooling as well as information that conveys some of the failures and disappointments of schooling. Too often training programs depict learning situations as mindlessly simple or as hopelessly complex. The balanced conclusion that teachers can make a difference in some areas but that it takes hard, sustained work (and still there will be some students who cannot be motivated) is a view that seems a more reasonable posture for teacher education programs. (Good, 1979a).

Good proposes that the most important result of education research in teacher effectiveness has been the development of concepts through which teachers can and "will necessarily have to interpret the form of potential applications in light of local conditions, district education values, etc." (Good, 1979a)

Another support for the significance of recent research grows out of Gage's proposal (1978) that we consider clusters of studies rather than single studies and test for significance in the combined results. Gage, director of Stanford University's Program on Teaching Effectiveness and a past president of the American Educational Research Association, illustrated his proposal by appraising results from studies of teacher behavior in four clusters: teacher indirectness and student achievement, teacher praise in relation to pupil attitudes, teacher acceptance of pupil ideas in relation to pupil achievement, and teacher criticism and disapproval and its impact on achievement. Examination of the findings studied in this mode caused Gage to conclude the "we do have some relationships between teacher behavior and pupil achievement and attitudes on which a scientific basis for the art of teaching may be erected." Commenting further, Gage noted that ". . . the path to increasing certainty becomes not the single excellent study, which is nonetheless weak in one or more respects, but the convergence of findings from many studies, which are also weak but in many different ways. The dissimilar, or nonreplicated, weaknesses leave the replicated findings more secure. Where the studies do not overlap in their flaws but do overlap in their implications, the research synthesizer can begin to build confidence in those implications" (Gage, 1978, p. 35).

Some tentative conclusions supported by current research are the following:

1. Real effects may be expected from differences in teacher behaviors and other instructional variables (e.g., Stallings and Kaskowitz, 1974), but the effects that may be expected--and detected--within, say, a year's time are probably much more modest than formerly thought.

2. There apparently is no single effective instructional method or individual teacher behavior. To expect one isolated teacher behavior to show easily detectable effect on student learning is naive. Rather, teaching is a complex act and must be examined as constellations of behaviors and as behavior occurring in a larger context (e.g., Dunkin and Biddle, 1974; Cruickshank, 1976; McDonald, 1976a; Brophy and evertson, 1978; Gage, 1979; Good, 1979a).

3. Effective teacher behavior varies according to the subect being taught (e.g., Tikunoff, Berlinger, Rist, 1975; McDonald, 1976a, 1976b; McDonald and Elias, 1976; Soar and Soar, 1976). The amount of positive teacher influence possible may vary according to subject area. Home environment may more strongly influence achievement in subjects such as reading and social studies than in "school" subjects such as science, mathematics, and foreign language (e.g., Coleman, 1975; McDonald, 1976b; Stallings, 1976; Evertson, Anderson and Brophy, 1978). Berlinger (1976) noted that teacher behavior has usually been studied in the most strongly home-influence subjects.

4. Effective teacher behavior varies according to pupil characteristics such as age and socioeconomic status (e.g., Tikunoff, Berlinger, Rist, 1974; Brophy, 1976; Brophy and Evertson, 1974, 1976, 1978; McDonald, 1976; McDonald and Elias, 1976; Medley, 1979, review of research), and the impact of

teacher behaviors on learning may be greater for some types of students than for others. Gage (1979) concluded that the findings of research to date support both generality (that there are instructional methods and teacher behaviors that are effective regardless of subject, student characteristics, etc.) and specificity (that there are methods and behaviors that are effective for specific subjects, types of learning, students, etc.).

5. The stability of measures of teacher effectiveness and teacher behaviors is low or moderate from year to year (e.g., Brophy, 1973, 1976; Berlinger, 1976; Shavelson and Atwood, 1977); but teachers who have low effectiveness tend to remain low in effectiveness (Good, 1979).

6. Individual teachers do make a difference; differences among teachers are substantial, and relatively effective and ineffective teachers can be identified for study (e.g., Veldman and Brophy, 1973; Brophy and Evertson, 1974; Berlinger and Tikunoff, 1976; McDonald and Elias, 1976).

7. One area of research in teacher effectiveness supports the body of folklore about classroom management--its importance and how to go about it--commonly found among teachers. However, both correlational and experimental studies are beginning to organize the amorphous term "classroom management" into principles by which the consequences of behaviors can be predicted and salient missing behaviors identified and developed (e.g., Kounin, 1970; Brophy and Evertson, 1976, 1978; Good and Power, 1976).

8. Differences among teachers in classroom management skills are detectable early in the school year, continue throughout the year, and predict levels of student attention and involvement later in the year (e.g., Anderson and Evertson, 1978).

9. The basic principles and specific skills of classroom management can be taught to teachers and indications of how teachers best can be taught are accumulating (e.g., Mackey, Glenn, and Lewis, 1977; Ponder and Doyle, 1977; Berlinger, 1978 Crawford and Stallings, 1978; Stayrook and Crawford, 1978; Good, 1979a, summaries of unpublished studies by Good and Grouws and Ebmeier and Good).

10. A pattern of instruction increasingly being supported by research is called direct instruction. Employing direct instruction,

> a teacher sets and articulates the learning goals, actively assesses student progress, and frequently makes class presentations illustrating how to do assigned work. Direct instruction does not occur when teachers do not actively present the process or concept under study, when they fail to supervise student seatwork actively, or if the do not hold students accountable for the work (Good, 1979b, p. 55).

A major dimension of direct instruction seems to be time, the crucial time for gains in student achievement being that in which students are actively engaged in instructional activities (Fisher, Filby, Cohen, et al., 1978). When seen from a broad perspective, this fact implies that instruction must be of a level suitable to permit students to persist and must be challenging interesting, and varied enough to keep their attention, all of which, in turn, implies that teachers must be highly skilled in designing instruction, selecting materials, and motivating students.

Soar and Soar (1976) found that there appears to be an optimum level for teacher directiveness that underlies direct instruction. The common assumption that "more is better" does not hold.

Direct instruction promotes a potentially repressive type of teaching if it is understood simplistically and its principles applied rigidly. Dunkin and Biddle (1974, pp. 94-133) have documented and analyzed the ideological confusion of coldness and directiveness in past research on teaching. Effective teachers must understand the difference. Rosenshire (1979) noted that the relatively formal classroom indicated by the direct instruction pattern does not necessarily have to be humorless, cold, and rigid; and teachers in the formal classroom do not necessarily have to be critical of the child.

11. Teachers and teacher educators cannot ignore research showing that classroom climate and affective behaviors are important (e.g., Tikunoff, Berlinger, Rist, 1975). Open approaches have been found superior in promoting positive attitudes toward school and teacher, independence, creativity and curiosity (Peterson, 1979). Stallings and Kaskowitz (1974; Stallings, 1976) found that open classrooms promoted school attendance whereas direct academic questions and large group instruction were associated with increased absences and that children in more flexible classrooms scored higher on a test of nonverbal problem-solving ability. Research by Soar and Soar (1976, 1979) suggests that the expression of positive affect in the classroom is important but may not be nearly so important as that negative affect not be impressed. However, a study by Peck and Veldman (1973a) indicated that teachers whose students made the greatest gains in achievement test scores were rated least pleasant and interesting by students.

12. Another major area identified by research as influencing student achievement is teacher expectations (Brophy and Evertson, 1976; McDonald and Elias, 1976). Brophy (1976, p. 31) has noted that, although the relationship between teachers' expectations and student achievement, the "self-fulfilling prophecy," was delineated by Rosenthal and Jacobson in 1968,

> . . . until recently, teacher education programs and textbooks had little to say about how inappropriate expectations or attitudes can cause teachers to behave in self-defeating ways. Now a data base exists which grows regularly, indicating how teachers treat students when their expectations or attitudes interfere with optimal instruction. As these data become well known, problems of undesirable self-fulfilling prophecy effects should be minimized.

Brophy identifies some of the negative teacher behaviors exhibited as

> . . . providing low expectation students with more criticism and less praise, feedback, individualized attention; calling on them less frequently and being less willing to wait patiently for an answer if one is not given immediately; and refusing to allow them to even

attempt work believed to be too hard for them. In short, self-fulfilling prophecies occur when teachers treat low expectation students by expecting less from them and teaching less to them.

Limitations of Research

While research on teacher effectiveness holds real promise for teacher education, teachers must be fully informed of its limitations:

1. Researchers are still working to define and clarify the variables of teacher effectiveness (Health and Nielson, 1974; Berlinger, 1976; Kennedy and Bush, 1976; Good, 1979a). Bush, Kennedy, and Cruickshank (1977) provide a good example of work being undertaken to identify what factors are involved in variables as nebulous, but apparently important, as clarity of presentation.

2. The majority of research has been limited to basic skills development in reading and mathematics in grades one through five (Rosenshine, 1979). In a study of junior high school students, Evertson, Anderson, and Brophy (1978) found indications that indirect instruction may become more effective and feasible with older students, especially those of high quality.

3. The direct instruction model does not seem consonant with the goals of certain types of instruction, for example, art and social studies. So far, most research has defined "student achievement" as "score on standardized achievement tests." Only the narrow goals reflected in such tests have been assessed to any extent. As Berlinger (1976, p. 6) noted, "off-the-shelf standardized tests make poor dependent variables for studies of teaching" because they lack content validity at the classroom level, correlate highly with standardized intelligence tests, and are questionable when used with young, bilingual, or culturally different children.

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APPENDIX B

Dr. Gilbert Austin, senior research associate at the Center for Educational Research and Development, University of Maryland--Baltimore County, assisted in the Process Evaluation: A Comprehensive Study of Outliers, a study conducted by the Maryland State Department of Education. The study is representative in general methodology and findings of many efforts contributing to the emerging literature on successful schools. The executive summary of findings is presented below to indicate the emergent constellation of variables which seem to be part of successful schools.

> Strong principal leadership (e.g., schools "being run" for a purpose rather than "running" from force of habit).
>
> Stronger participation by the principal in the classroom instructional programs and in actual teaching.
>
> Higher expectation on the part of the principal with respect to student and teacher performance.
>
> Greater experience and more pertinent education in the roles of principals, teachers, and teacher aides.
>
> A greater variety of backgrounds of the principals, teachers, and teacher aides.
>
> Principals and teachers read more educational journals.
>
> Principals felt that they had more control over the functioning of the school, the curriculum and program, and their staff.
>
> More satisfactory parent-teacher relationships.
>
> Teachers received a higher rating from both their principals and colleagues.
>
> Teachers are more satisfied with opportunities to try new things.
>
> Job responsibilities for the teacher aides included working across all grades with primarily small, low-ability groups.
>
> More teacher aides are used for supervision on the playground and in the cafeteria.
>
> More positive view of education on the part of the principals, teachers, and parents.
>
> Higher expectations on the part of teachers and parents of pupil achievement in the basic skill areas.
>
> More open space buildings, but program and curriculum considered to be traditional or a combination of traditional and open space.

Schools have a longer instruction day.

In evaluation, the teachers rely almost completely on teacher-developed tests and teacher judgements of student achievement.

Schools have a higher percentage of team teaching and smaller classes.

Students were felt to be more highly motivated by staff and were rated higher in their ability and social adjustment.

Fewer discipline problems.

Somewhat higher ranking on the usual indicator scales of socio-economic status (e.g., family income, stability, educational level, and cultural background).

APPENDIX C

The literature on adult development has fairly exploded during the past five years. Selecting from the myriad titles available those which seem particularly appropriate for leaders in teacher education is difficult. However, the following brief annotated bibliography, prepared by Ron Crowell who teaches adult development in the Department of Education and Professional Development at Western Michigan University, provides a basic reading list.

Bradbury, W. The Adult Years. New York: Time-Life Books, 1975. 176 pp.

Part of the Time-Life series on human behavior. Presents a profusely illustrated (photographed) treatment of the adult life cycle based in part on the work of Erikson, Neugarten, Botwinick, Freud, Jung, Kagan, Kenniston, LeShan, and others. Describes adulthood in several cultures. A good introduction.

Chickering, A. W. Education and Identity. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1969. 367 pp.

Focuses on the young adult in higher education. The author bases his work on seven major developmental vectors for the young adult: achieving competence, managing emotions, becoming autonomous, establishing identity, freeing interpersonal relationships, clarifying purposes, and developing identity.

Knox, A. B. Adult Development and Learning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1977. 679 pp.

A detailed, comprehensive handbook synthesizing the findings of more than a thousand recent studies of adult development and learning. Presents information from biological, social, and behavorial sciences. The author describes practical applications for educators and helping professionals.

LeShan, Eda J. The Wonderful Crisis of Middle Age: Some Personal Reflections. New York: McKay, 1973. 339 pp.

A positive look at middle age as an opportunity for self-actualization.

Levinson, Daniel J. et al. The Seasons of a Man's Life. New York: Random House, Inc., 1978. 363 pp.

A report of Levinson's empirical research conceptualizing a theory of adult development. Levinson's theory is based on extensive investigation into the lives of forty men working with a multidisciplinary team of researchers. This is a most important work in the growing literature on adult development.

Neugarten, B. L. (Ed.) Middle Age and Aging: A Reader in Social Psychology. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1968. 596 pp.

A collection of fifty-eight articles concentrating on social and psychological processes as individuals move from middle to old age. Addresses itself to the question, "What social and psychological adaptations are required as individuals move through the the second half of their lives?" Major attention is given to age status and age-sex roles' psychology of the life cycle, social-psychological theories of aging, attitudes toward health, family roles, work, retirement, and leisure, immediate social environment, differences in cultural settings, and perspectives of time and death.

Gould, Roger L. Transformations: Growth and Change in Adult Life. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1978. 343 pp.

Gould compared out-patients at UCLA's Neuropsychiatric Institute and a non-patient group to illustrate that adults generally pass through seven developmental stages, each stage having its special conflicts, joys, fears, and beliefs. An essential work in adult development.

Sheehy, G. Passages: Predictable Crises of Adult Life. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1974. 393 pp.

Popular description and discussion of adult crises. Based on research and interviews, this book locates personality changes common to each phase of life and compares the developmental rhythms of men and women.

Vaillant, George E. Adaptation to Life. Boston: Little, Brown and Bompany, 1977.

This work presents the results of a thirty-five year longitudinal study of 95 men from Harvard classes of 1942, 1943, and 1944. The work provides histories of the life cycles and maturational processes of the men. Vaillant, seeking to define criteria of mental health, found that some men reacted ingeniously to their life tasks while others remained "locked in patterns of defeat." These differences and patterns are discussed.

APPLICATION OF NATIONALLY STANDARDIZED vs. STATE DEVELOPED EXAMINATIONS FOR TEACHER CERTIFICATION

J. William Leach

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to give: the general situation in Georgia in the late 1960's and early 1970's which led to Performance-Based Teacher Certification; the general development of this certification process; judgements which resulted in Georgia developing its own tests for certification purposes; and the results of this process to date. Criterion-referenced testing to measure a threshold of knowledge is combined with on-the-job assessment during the first one to three years of teaching to make up Performance-Based Teacher Certification in Georgia.

BACKGROUND AND DEVELOPMENT

Georgia in the late 1960's was similar to many other states in matters of teacher preparation and certification. State approved programs had been in operation since 1948. Criteria for program approval included administrative policy, curriculum, staff, facilities, admission, retention and guidance. Graduates recommended by the institution were automatically certified. Note that these were all input or process measures rather than output or product measures. In essence the institution was the certifying agency, rather than the State Board of Education which has the constitutional authority. While many of the 33 teacher preparation institutions were responsive to the expressed needs of public school personnel, many were not. The student was often given a program outline with few or no electives and the statement, "this is what you need."

Certification of liberal arts graduates was possible by evaluation of transcripts against minimum certification standards when a thin veneer of professional education, consisting of foundations, methods, curriculum, media and professional laboratory experience, was added. Several of the state and private universities added Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) programs.

Georgia colleges have never produced enough graduates in teacher education to supply our need. Only in 1974, with 5,400 graduates in teacher education and teacher turnover of approximately the same, did we come close. Of course, some of these people went on to graduate school, marriage, military service or other professions. Business and industry have learned that graduates in elementary education are among the most liberally educated people available. Our deficit has been made up by recruiting teachers from out of state. This shortage was compounded by the high drop-out rate; almost two out of three beginning teachers dropped out of teaching by the end of the third year. Contacts with these teacher dropouts and the school systems that hired them primarily indicate problems of performance, including lack of classroom management, motivational and communication skills. Secondarily, lack of knowledge of the subject to be taught was a problem. Too many former teachers indicated a lack of supportive supervision and they were too deeply in trouble before help was available.

Georgia needs included: a continuum of preparation after entry into teaching; a more clear separation of preparation and certification with emphasis on product rather than process measures; and supportive supervision of beginning teachers. These were reflected in the needs assessments mandated in 1968 by the transfer of Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Act from the U. S. O. E. to the state. Needs expressed in The Short Range Assessment of Educational Needs in Georgia were: "Improved pre-service education; in-service education for professional and para-professional personnel; improvement of teacher competencies." The long range needs assessment conducted through the Georgia Assessment Project influenced Goals for Education in Georgia. This document, adopted in 1970 by the State Board of Education, emphasized the need for "competent professional teachers and other personnel" and "continuous review of certification and adjustment of the certification process to license teachers and other professional personnel on the basis of demonstrated competence and ability."

In 1971 the State Legislature responded to a plea not to legislatively mandate Competency -Based Certification from the State Department of Education and representatives from the teaching profession. They were assured that a certification process based on teacher competency would be developed with input from all areas and levels of the profession.

One of the 23 missions for the State Department of Education announced in 1972 by the State Superintendent of Schools was to "Certify educational personnel on the basis of demonstrated competency." That year he joined the Chancellor of the University System of Georgia in appointing a steering committee on competency-based teacher education and certification. This committee operated through 1974 and made the following recommendations:

1. It is recommended that preparation institutions in Georgia develop competency-based programs, and that demonstrated performance become the basis for certifying educational personnel.

2. It is recommended that a professional council be appointed to recommend to the State Board for Education criteria and procedures for moving toward competency-based preparation and performance-based certification program. (From this time forward we have used *competency* in relation to preparation and *performance* in relation to certification. The existing Teacher Education Council has served as an advisory body.)

3. It is recommended that the State Board of Education secure and budget adequate funds for the developmental cost of competency specifications, assessment procedures, criterion-referenced test construction, technical assistance and materials, and the operational cost pertaining to the certification process and the continued updating of competency statements and criterion-referenced tests.

4. It is recommended that the State Board for Education continue to approve teacher education programs pending the development by colleges and universities of an acceptable alternative self-regulating procedure.

5. It is recommended that the certification of graduates from in-state institutions be limited to graduates of approved programs. (This means that graduates of liberal arts programs could be provisionally certified but must complete the professional sequence in a college with an approved program in order to complete professional certification.)

A task force was appointed which developed a long range plan for moving to performance-based certification. Also in 1973, the State Board of Education approved a plan which set aside funds for staff development in local systems; use of these funds was contingent upon needs assessment and the development of a local staff development plan based on these needs. Also approved was a procedure for performance-based certification renewal as an alternative to college credit.

During FY 74 the Georgia Department of Education funded six projects concerned with the identification, verification, and validation of competence as well as procedures for assessing various educational personnel. Professional groups addressed were teachers, principals, counselors, trade and industrial teachers, general vocational education teachers, and student teacher supervisors.

In FY 75 these projects were continued and two projects were added to address student teachers and supportive supervision for beginning teachers. The Teacher Education Council recommended proposed changes to performance-based certification as well as competency-based guidelines and criteria for approved programs.

In 1975 the Request for Proposal was approved by the State Board of education, proposals were evaluated, and National Evaluation Systems was selected as the contractor. Seventeen tests were developed over the next two year and the first tests were administered in 1978-1979 to applicants completing preparation July 1, 1978 or later. The tests are administered four times annually at four testing sites for each administration. Two new tests, one in administration and supervision and one in counseling, are being added this year. Candidates completing preparation for initial certification May 1, 1980 or later will receive non-renewable certificates valid for three years and will begin on-the-job assessments for certification purposes beginning in the fall of 1980. Seventeen Regional Assessment Centers have been established. A Data Collector from the Center will make two evaluations each year on each beginning teacher. In addition, two assessments will be made each year by a supervisor and a peer master teacher for a total of six assessments a year. A profile of performance is developed twice each year and released to the beginning teacher and the staff development coordinator of the school system. Staff development, provided by state funds, is planned for each beginning teacher, based on assessed needs. The peer master teacher gives supportive supervision. Those teachers meeting minimum performance standards over any two consecutive assessment periods will receive renewable teaching certificates valid for five years. Those beginning teachers who, despite staff development and supportive supervision, do not meet minimum performance standards during the first three years, will not be certified.

CRITERION-REFERENCED/NORM-REFERENCED TESTS
DEFINITIONS AND COMPARISONS

A criterion-referenced test is one that is constructed to yield measurements directly interpretable in terms of explicit performance standards (desired learning objectives) without reference to the performance of other individuals in a group. This is in contrast to the norm-referenced test, which is constructed to discriminate among levels of performance and permit comparisons of an individual's performance with that of a norm (i.e., normal, average) group.

The criterion-referenced test is designed to evaluate an individual's mastery or nonmastery of each objective in a set of performance objectives. Every item in a criterion-referenced test is written to measure a specific performance objective. These objectives are phrased in terms of behavior. In other words, a performance objective defines the intended outcome of instruction. It describes the way in which the behavior of the individual is expected to be changed as a result of classroom instruction.

The criterion-referenced test does not judge an individual's performance in terms of a norm group's performance. The individual is judged, instead, on whether he has mastered objectives.

The criterion-referenced test, then, is an inventory of the desired behaviors. It shows which specific performance objectives the candidate has mastered and which he needs to review in order to qualify for initial certification. This information then can be used in a practical way to plan instruction for the student.

The following advantages of criterion-referenced tests were extracted from the literature in the field by staff members of the Georgia Department of Education and were used in making the decision to develop criterion-referenced tests for teacher certification in Georgia.

I. Job-relatedness

It is becoming a legal stipulation that all aspects of a certification process become job-related. Norm-referenced tests, such as the NTE, would have to be validated through extensive predictability or content analysis studies to determine whether they could meet this criterion. That such validation studies are not very promising is implied by W. James Popham, in his article in Phi Delta Kappan May, 1974, "An Approaching Peril: Cloud-Referenced Tests":

> A ... basic problem with norm-referenced tests is that they are developed by test production firms which must service an entire nation, a nation with very diverse curricular preferences. If the test agencies spelled out, in unambiguous detail, exactly what it is their tests measure, many educators would find that the test's emphases did not match the local curriculum. They wouldn't buy the test. But test publishers subsist on the sales of their tests. They get out of this bind by describing their tests in very general terms, thereby picking up the classic Rorschach dividend of allowing people to see what they want to in an ink blot. This practice results in many educators using tests which are, in reality, not consonant with local curricular emphases. Mismatched measurement and instruction yields misleading data and spurious conclusions.

A CRT designed to meet the minimum education goals and objectives of Georgia could more readily meet this criterion.

II. Appropriate Measure

A. Initial Certification

Criterion-referenced tests can be designed to measure minimum performance. Norm-referenced tests are designed to show a wide differentiation in performance.

A CRT is a more appropriate measure for certification purposes. Certification should give the public assurance as to essential (i.e., basic, minimal) competency of personnel. Efforts at being selective are a function of employment.

B. Monitoring of effectiveness of teacher preparation programs.

The CRT is responsibe to state certification needs. One obligation of state departments of education is to monitor the quality of teacher preparation programs within each state. A criterion-referenced battery of tests would make possible a more sophisticated monitoring of college output than is now possible and provide a valuable supplement to the institutional evaluation visit. College, public school and state department personnel would participate in judgements about the criteria for each subject area; the information from item and item group analyses when fed back to the state and the colleges would pinpoint areas of deficiencies that are defined by state-adopted minimal standards. Better information at least makes change more possible and enables state and college officials to respond to criticism more effectively.

W. James Popham in an "An Approaching Peril: Cloud-Referenced Tests" explains in detail why norm-referenced tests cannot do the same task:

> "There are, indeed, a number of situations in which norm-referenced tests (particularly if their cultural bias problems are cleaned up) can prove very serviceable. Evaluating the quality of an educational program is not one of those instances. Let's see why this is so.
>
> The first prominent defect of norm-referenced tests stems from their primary function, that is, to permit comparisons of an individual's performance with that of a norm group. This leads to the descriptor "norm-referenced," since we literally reference (interpret) a person's performance in terms of the performance of the norm (i.e., normal, average) group. The most common examples of norm-referenced tests are our too-frequently used standardized test of aptitude or achievement.

In order to permit an individual's performance to be referenced to the performance of a norm group, there must be a reasonable degree of response variance in scores on the test. In other words, to make fine-grained comparisons (e.g., Mary is at the 76th percentile; John is at the 74th), the test must produce a reasonable spread of scores. Test items which do not contribute substantially to the production of score variance are either modified or eliminated.

Consider the case of what happens to an oft-revised norm-referenced achievement test over a period of time. Test items deal with the concepts that most teachers believe are important will be answered correctly by more students, hence reducing the capability of such items to spread out student performance. An ideal test item for maximizing response variance is one which only 50% of the test takers answer correctly. An item answered correctly by 80% or more of the students is typically jettisoned, since it doesn't do its share in spreading learners out. This means that in many cases the very items which deal with the concepts or skills considered most important to a field will, over time, be systematically eliminated from a norm-referenced achievement, test. After several revisions, in fact, a standardized achievement test looks and functions very much like a standardized intelligence test. Such tests are relatively insensitive to instruction."

C. Consistency with Performance-Based Certification

Measurement by job-related learning objectives characteristic of CRTs is consistent with the concept of performance-based certification.

Norm-referenced tests do not have explicit performance standards related to job expectations, and thereby create a gap between knowledge and practice.

Georgia had experience, through use of the National Teachers Exam, of a norm-referenced national examination for certification purposes. The Educational Testing Service did not recommend use of the NTE for certification without proper local validation. The six-year certificate or teaching specialist certificate was developed in the early sixties to provide a salary increment of approximately $1,000 for a year of post masters study. A score of 1,225 on the combined concensus and area examination was required for certification. The U. S. District Court in January 1976 ruled that the test had no rational relationship to the purpose of the six-year certificate, and as such, created an arbitrary classification violative of the equal protection clause. This and similar cases indicated that a state must show a valid relationship between a general national examination and the specific duties performed by a teacher in the state.

Later on, the use of the NTE was upheld in South Carolina where a local validation study was completed. Note that this study did not validate the test against job related abilities or competencies of teacher applicants for certification, but against the curriculum in South Carolina institutions preparing teachers. This was a training course validation rather than a job performance validation. We hoped to do far more that this in Georgia. It seemed to us, after a careful review of legal cases up to 1975 when our decision to develop our own CRTs was made, that a certification system based on minimum cut-off scores on either the GRE or NTE would be overturned by the courts, while criterion-referenced tests would be acceptable if job-related.

When our decision was made we did not have the advantage of the debate between Robert L. Ebel of Michigan State University and W. James Popham of the University of California, Los Angeles which appeared in Educational Researcher December 1978, Vol. 7, No. 11. This debate would have reinforced our decision. Dr. Ebel stated "The Case For Norm-Referenced Measurements" and included the following advantages of norm-referenced tests:

1. They assess pupils' broad general level of knowledge and understanding of a subject, not their mastery of a few particulars.
2. They reflect common nationwide goals for learning, not unique local goals.
3. They assess achievements at all levels of excellence and mediocrity. They do not focus primarily on minimum essentials.
4. Because each item can test a different aspect of achievement, they

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provide a broader and more representative sampling of achievements.

5. They are consistent with the view that achievement in learning is a matter of more or less, not of everything (mastery) or nothing.
6. They provide a single score that concisely summarizes pupils' general level of achievement, not an extended inventory of things learned or not learned.
7. They are primarily useful for summative, not formative evaluation. They indicate how successful the pupil's efforts to learn have been; how successful the teachers' efforts to foster that learning have been.
8. They imply that the primary responsibility for successful learning rests with the pupil, not with the instructional delivery system.

Our responses are:

1. The test should reflect knowledge considered essential by Georgia educators.
2. They should reflect local and statewide goals for learning.
3. Certification is not stratified at levels of excellence or mediocrity but should reflect at least minimum competency to teach.
4. There is more assurance an objective is met if the objective is addressed by several test items.
5. Achievement in learning for purposes of certification is not a matter of mastery of everything or nothing but enough knowledge to reasonably perform as a teacher of X subject in Georgia.
6. An inventory of things or areas of teaching content learned or not learned is most helpful in preparing individualized staff development for teachers.
7. We wanted tests that could establish minimum knowledge as well as formative evaluations for improvement purposes.
8. We feel that the prospective teacher has primary responsibility for enough knowledge to pass entry tests. We also feel an obligation to share summary information with colleges showing how well their graduates are doing in comparison with state means.

We tend to agree with Dr. Popham when he states:

> "Proposition one: For purposes of instruction or evaluation, norm-referenced achievement tests are essentially worthless."

> "Proposition two: Criterion-referenced achievement tests, if they are properly fashioned, can be of enormous utility to instructors and evaluators."

Popham further stated a need for term tightening and identified norm-referenced test deficits of: teaching-test mismatches, impercise instructional targets, and psychometric tendencies to eliminate important test items. Popham indicates that CRT's: test what is taught, include a substantial number of items per measured behavior, retain test items many students might, after decent instruction, answer correctly.

ADVANTAGES OF GEORGIA DEVELOPED CRITERION-REFERENCED TESTS FOR CERTIFICATION

These tests were developed to ensure that teachers in the State of Georgia possess at least the minimum knowledge in the teaching field required for successful performance.

It was determined that the tests would be:

- Job-Related to Teaching in Georgia Schools (tests measure what is taught)
- Developed with involvement of Georgia Personnel From Colleges, Public Schools and State Department of Education
- Specific to State Standards
- Based on State and Local Curriculum Guides and State Adopted Texts
- Accurately Descriptive of Teacher Knowledge of the Subject
- Formative Evaluations to Aid in Improving the Quality of Teacher Preparation and Staff Development
- Continually Updated
- Administered on a Schedule that is Appropriate for Prospective Teachers in Georgia
- Tied to Objectives for Each Certification Field and Thereby Would Provide Examinees and Teacher Preparation Institutions with Content From Which Test Items Will be Drawn
- An Objective and Uniform Standard for Evaluating all Applicants for

The tests have been very helpful to the colleges in program evaluation. Each college receives a summary profile after each test showing the institutional mean on each area of each test in comparison to the state mean. (Appendix C) Many are examining courses of study where weakness is indicated, and plans are being made for change. In addition, many students entering graduate programs are using test profiles in consultation with faculty advisors to plan teaching field content courses in the graduate program. (Appendix D)

Most local school systems now have a contractual requirement that new teachers share the CRT profile for staff development purposes. The state provides funds for staff development of each beginning teacher so that needs identified through the test and assessment of on-the-job performance can be individually addressed.

To date, 19 teaching field criterion-referenced tests have been developed (see Appendix A). These tests cover areas in which approximately 95% of the beginning teachers in Georgia teach. Other tests are being developed for fields where few teachers enter, such as trade and industrial education, and foreign languages. Alternative assessment procedures, such as an expert panel interview, may be developed for areas where there are few teachers.

Approximately 5,000 teachers have been tested over the last year and a half, with an 80% passing rate. Fifty-four percent of the applicants who failed the test initially and have retaken the test one or more times have passed. It is recommended that applicants who fail the test: study the objectives carefully in areas where scores are low, read text and related curriculum materials used in Georgia, and after a period of further study, retake the test. Four different forms of the test are developed each year so that the applicant takes a different test each time.

I have not addressed procedures used in test development because of limited time. While fine-tuning of cutoff scores will continue each year and new tests must be developed, we are satisfied with our progress to date.

It is too early to predict the success of our on-the-job assessment procedures using Teacher Performance Assessment Instruments (Generic competencies shown in Appendix B) which begins this fall. Our year of field testing with 17 assessment centers has been successful.

We are generally satisfied with our efforts toward performance-based certification. States have an absolute right and responsibility to set certification standards. If we were required to start over, we would make fewer mistakes, but we would do it again.

APPENDIX A

The following 17 tests for 38 teaching fields have been developed and are being administered quarterly.

Certification Test	Teaching Field(s)
Early Childhood	Early Childhood (Grades K-4)*
Middle Childhood	Middle Grades (Grades 4-8)*
Communicative Arts	English and Speech (Grades 7-12)
Social Studies	Social Studies, Geography, History, Political Science, Economics, Psychology, Sociology, Anthropology, and Behavioral Science (Grades 7-12)
Mathematics	Mathematics (Grades 7-12)
Science	Science, Earth Science, Biology, Chemistry, Physics (Grades 7-12)
Business	Bookkeeping and Business Management, Business Administration, Business Data Processing and Accounting, and Comprehensive Business Education (Grades 7-12)
Home Economics	General and Vocational Home Economics (Grades 7-12)
Industrial Arts	Industrial Arts (Grades 7-12)
Agriculture	General and Vocational Agriculture (Grades 7-12)
Art	Art (Grades K-12)
Music	Music (Grades K-12)
Library Media	Library Media (Grades (K-12)
Health and Physical Education	Health and Physical Education, Health (Grades K-12)
Special Education: Mental Retardation	Mental Retardation (Grades K-12)
Special Education: Professional Knowledge	Learning Disabilities, Behavior Disorders, and Special Education Interrelated (Grades K-12)
Distributive Education	Distributive Education (Grades 7-12)

*Individuals seeking an Elementary Grades 1-8 certificate must take either the Early

Childhood or Middle Childhood test.

APPENDIX B

GENERIC TEACHING COMPETENCIES AND THEIR INDICATORS FOR ASSESSING STUDENT TEACHERS AND BEGINNING TEACHERS

1. PLANS INSTRUCTION TO ACHIEVE SELECTED OBJECTIVES.

   1.01 Specifies or selects learner objectives for lessons

   1.02 Specifies or selects teaching procedures for lessons.

   1.03 Specifies or selects content, materials, and media for lessons.

   1.04 Specifies or selects materials and procedures for assessing learner progress on the objectives.

   1.05 Plans instruction at a variety of levels.

2. ORGANIZES INSTRUCTION TO TAKE INTO ACCOUNT INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AMONG LEARNERS.

   2.01 Organizes instruction to take into account differences among learners in their capabilities.

   2.02 Organizes instruction to take into account differences among learners in their learning styles.

   2.03 Organizes instruction to take into account differences among learners in their rates of learning.

3. OBTAINS AND USES INFORMATION ABOUT THE NEEDS AND PROGRESS OF INDIVIDUAL LEARNERS.

   3.01 Uses teacher-made or teacher-selected evaluation materials or procedures to obtain information about learner progress.

   3.02 Communicates with individual learners about their needs and progress.

*4. REFERS LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL PROBLEMS TO SPECIALISTS.

   4.01 Obtains and uses information about learners from cumulative records.

   4.02 Identifies learners who require the assistance of specialists.

   4.03 Obtains and uses information from co-workers and parents to assist with specific learner problems.

*This competency may not be required in the assessment of student teachers.

5. OBTAINS AND USES INFORMATION ABOUT THE EFFECTIVENESS OF INSTRUCTION TO REVISE IT WHEN NECESSARY.

5.01 Obtains information on the effectiveness of instruction.

5.02 Revises instruction as needed using evaluation results and observation data.

6. USES INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES, METHODS, AND MEDIA RELATED TO THE OBJECTIVES.

6.01 Uses teaching methods appropriate for objectives, learners and environment.

6.02 Uses instructional equipment and other instructional aids.

6.03 Uses instructional materials that provide learners with appropriate practice on objectives.

7. COMMUNICATES WITH LEARNERS.

7.01 Gives directions and explanations related to lesson content.

7.02 Clarifies directions and explanations when learners misunderstand lesson content.

7.03 Uses responses and questions from learners in teaching.

7.04 Provides feedback to learners throughout the lesson.

7.05 Uses acceptable written and oral expression with learners.

8. DEMONSTRATES A REPERTOIRE OF TEACHING METHODS.

8.01 Implements learning activities in a logical sequence.

8.02 Demonstrates ability to conduct lessons using a variety of teaching methods.

8.03 Demonstrates ability to work with individuals, small groups, and large groups.

9. REINFORCES AND ENCOURAGES LEARNER INVOLVEMENT IN INSTRUCTION.

9.01 Uses procedures which get learners initially involved in lessons.

9.02 Provides learners with opportunities for participating.

9.03 Maintains learners involvement in lessons.

9.04 Reinforces and encourages the efforts of learners to maintain involvement.

10. DEMONSTRATES AN UNDERSTANDING OF THE SCHOOL SUBJECT BEING TAUGHT.

    10.01 Helps learners recognize the purpose and importance of topics or activities.

    10.02 Demonstrates knowledge in the subject area.

11. ORGANIZES TIME, SPACE, MATERIALS, AND EQUIPMENT FOR INSTRUCTION.

    11.01 Attends to routine tasks.

    11.02 Uses instructional time effectively.

    11.03 Provides a learning environment that is attractive and orderly.

12. DEMONSTRATES ENTHUSIASM FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING AND THE SUBJECT BEING TAUGHT.

    12.01 Communicates personal enthusiasm.

    12.02 Stimulates learner interest.

    12.03 Conveys the impression of knowing what to do and how to do it.

13. HELPS LEARNERS DEVELOP POSITIVE SELF CONCEPTS.

    13.01 Demonstrates warmth and friendliness.

    13.02 Demonstrates sensitivity to the needs and feelings of learners.

    13.03 Demonstrates patience, empathy and understanding.

14. MANAGES CLASSROOM INTERACTIONS.

    14.01 Provides feedback to learners about their behavior.

    14.02 Promotes comfortable interpersonal relationships.

    14.03 Maintains appropriate classroom behavior.

    14.04 Manages disruptive behavior among learners.

**15. MEETS PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES.

    15.01 Works cooperatively with colleagues, administrators, and community members.

15.02 Follows the policies and procedures of the school district.

15.03 Demonstrates ethical behavior.

15.04 Performs extra-instructional duties.

**16. ENGAGES IN PROFESSIONAL SELF-DEVELOPMENT.

16.01 Participates in professional growth activities.

16.02 Shares and seeks professional materials and ideas.

**These competencies are not required for certification purposes. They may be used as an option for staff development purposes.

APPENDIX C

GEORGIA TEACHER CERTIFICATION TESTING PROGRAM
TEST SCORE REPORT

DATE TEST TAKEN: MARCH 1, 1980
TEST TAKEN: EARLY CHILDHOOD

QUESTIONS ON THE TEST ARE GROUPED INTO MAJOR CONTENT SUBAREAS. THE PERCENTAGE CORRECT BY EACH EXAMINEE ON EACH SUBAREA IS GIVEN. THE NUMBER OF QUESTIONS PER SUBAREA IS NOT EQUAL AND THEREFORE AN AVERAGE OF THE SUBAREA PERCENTAGES DOES NOT EQ' THE TOTAL TEST SCORE.

THE SUBAREAS ON THE TEST ARE AS FOLLOWS:

1 = LANGUAGE ARTS
2 = MATHEMATICS
3 = SCIENCE
4 = SOCIAL STUDIES
5 = ART
6 = MUSIC
7 = PHYSICAL EDUCATION, OUTDOOR EDUCATION, HEALTH

INSTITUTION:	15 EXAMINEES TOOK THE TEST	10 PASSED (67%)	5 FAILED (33%)
STATEWIDE:	447 EXAMINEES TOOK THE TEST	365 PASSED (82%)	82 FAILED (18%)

SD = SLIGHTLY DEFICIENT
D = DEFICIENT
VD = VERY DEFICIENT

EXAMINEE NAME	PASS/ FAIL	SUBAREA 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MATTIE S.	PASS	76	79	77	91	67	100	100
IMOGEN R.	PASS	76	61	69	55	67	60	100
JUANIT E.	PASS	82	82	69	82	67	100	89
LOUISE V.	FAIL-SD	70	61	62	82	33	100	44
REBECC M.	PASS	85	84	77	82	33	100	100
MAXIE A.	FAIL-D	70	50	62	64	33	100	56
SARAH A.	PASS	79	82	77	55	33	100	89
LISA D.	PASS	79	79	62	82	67	100	89
CAROLY L.	FAIL-VD	58	55	62	64	33	100	67
BARBAR A.	PASS	76	82	54	82	33	100	67
MARY E.	PASS	73	92	62	64	67	40	100
GWENDO D	FAIL-VD	58	58	46	45	67	100	89
ELIZAB R.	PASS	82	82	77	82	100	100	89
ROBERT S.	FAIL-D	73	61	38	45	67	100	56
INSTITUTION AVERAGE		74	73	65	70	56	93	82
STATEWIDE AVERAGE		75	78	66	66	67	89	84

THE INSTITUTION AVERAGE INCLUDES STUDENTS WHOSE RESULTS ARE NOT PRINTED.

APPENDIX D

GEORGIA TEACHER CERTIFICATION TESTING PROGRAM
INDIVIDUAL TEST SCORE REPORT

DATE TEST TAKEN: NOVEMBER 18, 1978
TEST TAKEN: HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

NANCY E. EXAMINEE NUMBER =
ROUTE
MARTIN GA 30557

YOU HAVE NOT PASSED THE HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION CERTIFICATION TEST WHICH YOU TOOK ON THE DATE SPECIFIED ABOVE. COMPARED TO THE PERFORMANCE LEVEL REQUIRED FOR PASSING, YOUR OVERALL SCORE ON THE TEST WAS

SLIGHTLY DEFICIENT ****
DEFICIENT
VERY DEFICIENT

IF YOU WISH TO TAKE THE TEST AGAIN, CHECK YOUR REGISTRATION BULLETIN FOR THE DATES AND REGISTRATION DEADLINE OF FUTURE TEST ADMINISTRATIONS.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEST YOU TOOK ARE GROUPED INTO MAJOR CONTENT SUBAREAS. TO ASSIST YOU IN FURTHER STUDY OR IN PREPARATION FOR RETAKING THE TEST, YOUR PERFORMANCE IN EACH CONTENT SUBAREA IS PRESENTED. WHEN READING THE TABLE BELOW PLEASE NOTE THAT THE NUMBER OF QUESTIONS PER SUBAREA IS NOT EQUAL AND THEREFORE AN AVERAGE OF THE SUBAREA PERCENTAGES DOES NOT EQUAL THE TOTAL TEST SCORE.

PERCENT CORRECT	SUBAREA
90%	ELEMENTARY P.E., BASIC MOVEMENTS, AND GAMES
89%	GYMNASTICS AND DANCE
89%	SECONDARY PHYSICAL EDUCATION
50%	SOFTBALL, SOCCER, FOOTBALL, VOLLEYBALL
80%	TENNIS, HANDBALL, FENCING, BOWLING, TRACK
67%	WEIGHTS, COMBATIVES, AQUATICS, GYMNASTICS
83%	HEALTH, BODY SYSTEMS, DISEASE
100%	DEVELOPMENT, HYGIENE, SAFETY, NUTRITION
70%	MENTAL HEALTH, DRUGS, SEX EDUCATION

THE RESULTS OF THIS TEST HAVE BEEN FORWARDED TO THE TEACHER CERTIFICATION OFFICE IN GEORGIA.

GEORGIA TEACHER CERTIFICATION TESTING PROGRAM
INDIVIDUAL TEST SCORE REPORT

DATE TEST TAKEN: NOVEMBER 18, 1978
TEST TAKEN: HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

BARRY S.
ROUTE RD
CANTON GA 30114

EXAMINEE NUMBER =

YOU HAVE PASSED THE HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION CERTIFICATION WHICH YOU TOOK ON THE DATE SPECIFIED ABOVE.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEST YOU TOOK ARE GROUPED INTO MAJOR CONTENT SUBAREAS. TO ASSIST YOU IN FURTHER STUDY, YOUR PERFORMANCE IN EACH CONTENT SUBAREA IS PRESENTED. WHEN READING THE TABLE BELOW PLEASE NOTE THAT THE NUMBER OF QUESTIONS PER SUBAREA IS NOT EQUAL AND THEREFORE AN AVERAGE OF THE SUBAREA PERCENTAGES DOES NOT EQUAL THE TOTAL TEST SCORE.

PERCENT CORRECT	SUBAREA
80%	ELEMENTARY P.E., BASIC MOVEMENTS, AND GAMES
78%	GYMNASTICS AND DANCE
89%	SECONDARY PHYSICAL EDUCATION
86%	SOFTBALL, SOCCER, FOOTBALL, VOLLEYBALL
84%	TENNIS, HANDBALL, FENCING, BOWLING, TRACK
78%	WEIGHTS, COMBATIVES, AQUATICS, GYMNASTICS
94%	HEALTH, BODY SYSTEMS, DISEASE
50%	DEVELOPMENT, HYGIENE, SAFETY, NUTRITION
90%	MENTAL HEALTH, DRUGS, SEX EDUCATION

THE RESULTS OF THIS TEST HAVE BEEN FORWARDED TO THE TEACHER CERTIFICATION OFFICE IN GEORGIA.

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COMPETENCE IN CLASSROOMS - A STATE BOARD VIEW

Emlyn I. Griffith

In recent years state boards of education have done much to make certain that our schools do not graduate functional illiterates. Many states now require students to pass basic competency tests prior to high school graduation, and some states now assess the quality of programs in elementary and secondary schools. But competence of students and quality of academic programs are only parts of the educational problem. Another crucial part is competence of teachers and administrators.

The cover story in the June 16, 1980, issue of TIME, entitled "Help! Teacher Can't Teach," cites examples of classroom instructors who either do not know their subject matter or do not know how to teach. According to the magazine reporters, the parents of students now being held to higher standards are demanding that their childrens' instructors also meet higher standards.

During the next few years all of us will face the issue of competence in American classrooms. While we can agree that every student deserves competent teachers and administrators, we may disagree as to what constitutes competence or how and by whom it can be guaranteed.

In my remarks I propose to discuss these questions, to describe what my fellow-Regents and I are trying to accomplish in New York (as an example of what can be done) and to suggest what still needs to be done.

By law and tradition, individual states are responsible for ensuring the competence of teachers, supervisors and administrators. Although education is a state responsibility, state boards of education must look to teacher training institutions and local school districts for help. The general pattern is for state boards to issue licenses or certificates and for State education agencies to ensure, or at least measure, the competence of graduates from teachers' colleges. As Dan Alexander, president of the

Mobile (Alabama) Board of Education, said in the TIME article, "you cannot test a teacher on whether he's competent, but you certainly can prove that he's incompetent."

Minimally, teachers should be able to read, write and compute as well as average college graduates. They should have general knowledge of history, literature, mathematics and science; and those teaching in secondary schools should have specific knowledge of the subjects they teach. According to TIME, however, many classroom instructors do not meet this first set of minimal, testable stand

The second set of competency standards is more difficult to describe or to test. It includes the ability to teach and to communicate to students the skills, thinking processes and information concepts in which the teacher is competent.

Schools of education insist they teach this ability; but TIME reporters question the claim, quoting James D. Koerner of the Sloan Foundation as saying, "there is little evidence that the current program of study improves teacher performance." Whether or not schools of education do teach their students how to teach, it is obvious that state boards and agencies must ensure that all new teachers receive individualized training from experienced teachers in real-life classrooms. Only through day-to-day observation can the ability of prospective licenses to transmit skills and knowledge be evaluated.

Some of my colleagues in other states have taken significant steps to improve student performance and, beyond that, to improve teacher competence. In all states of this nation board members are wrestling with these problems.

I will describe what we are doing in New York, not as a panacea, but as one example of a serious effort to upgrade the performance level of teachers and administrators.

During the past three years the Board of Regents and State Education Department have begun a comprehensive program to strengthen student achievement in elementary and secondary schools. The effort in New York has included statewide competency tests in basic learning skills, as well as early and continuing remediation for youngsters needing special assistance.

We have added student performance criteria to the registration process for high schools and, through a resource allocation plan, channelled funds and staff expertise to schools needing special assistance.

Now the Regents are starting to strengthen the performance of teaching and administrative personnel. We have adopted, in principle, several proposals to assure high-quality instruction, based upon our current system of teacher certification but including these important changes:

1. An entry-level examination would be required for licensure, as in medicine, engineering, accounting and all other professions.

2. A one-year internship would be a condition of permanent licensure. It would consist of the first year of regular employment, with close supervision and assistance by experienced personnel. Evaluation of the intern's ability in the classroom would be reviewed by state supervisors.

3. Each school district would conduct periodic reviews of all teachers, supervisors and administrators. The local school board would set its own performance objectives and judge its own personnel, and staff members identified as needing assistance would be required to take appropriate in-service training.

4. The State would provide funds for in-service education of professional personnel. Funding levels, of course, would be established by the Legislature.

5. To implement these policies, legislation would be proposed to establish two state boards: one for Teachers and one for School Administrators and Supervisors. Both would operate under the aegis of the Regents and the State Education Department in the same way that other professional boards function. Licensed practitioners and public representatives would serve on the two boards, which would advise the Regents on policy matters, especially those relative to licensure standards and practices. They would also hear changes of professional misconduct under standards identical to those governing other professions.

6. A comprehensive system of discipline would be established. Responsibility for maintaining professional competence would be transferred to the new state boards. Teachers, supervisors and administrators would come under the statutory provision applicable to all professions. These provisions (a) define grounds of professional misconduct, including incompetence and negligence, (b) provide a flexible range of penalties, including censure and reprimand, fines and license suspension or revocation, and (c) mandate procedures which guarantee due process and leave final decisions to the lay Board of Regents.

7. The present system of certification would be converted to licensure and defined by appropriate statutes and regulations. As indicated earlier, new candidates would have to complete a course of study approved by the Commissioner of Education and pass entry-level examinations, as must other candidates for professional licensure. Certificates currently held by teachers and administrators would automatically become licenses.

As a strong advocate of state-local partnerships in educational governance, I am pleased that New York's new plan would not infringe upon the management perogatives of local school boards, including authority for appointment, probation and tenure. At present, this authority is restricted only in that every new teacher must meet minimum statutory qualifications. By applying higher standards of eligibility, the Regents proposals would assure school districts that all candidates for employment have attained acceptable levels of competence. Local boards would retain the right to appoint any eligible person to an internship -- or a regular first-year probationary position if the applicant already has completed an internship or obtained a license -- and to terminate employment any time during probation, including the internship year.

The New York Regents have bitten the bullet and developed a plan of action to make certain that new licensees will have knowledge of their subject matter (as tested by the pre-licensure examinations) and the ability to teach (as tested by evaluations during their internship).

But this approach concentrates on new teachers. Because of the decline in student enrollments and the large number of tenured teachers already in place, most of the instructors of the next decade or two are already in the classrooms of America.

Their continuing competence must be assured.

Guaranteeing the knowledge and skills of newly licensed teachers is not enough. At least two additional approaches are necessary: in-service education for older personnel and curriculum improvement.

As I have indicated, the New York plan includes a proposal for in-service training of current teachers, supervisors and administrators. While I am concerned about the cost impact, I realize that something must be done to maintain the competence of professional staff already tenured. I cannot over-emphasize the importance to assuring the quality of in-service training and its relevance to the individual needs of classroom personnel.

The other key proposal involves development and dissemination of curricula which meet standards of excellence. If state boards require instructors to teach relevant, useful subject matter and provide carefully prepared curricula, we will be doing a great deal to encourage effective learning. Good or average teachers can use the curricula without special training; below-average teachers can have in-service courses to help them make maximum use of the curriculum materials. What's important is that both content and method of instruction be of high quality.

Here, then, are the vital ingredients: (1) ensuring that new teachers know what they are teaching and how to teach before they are fully licensed; (2) ensuring that tenured personnel receive adequate in-service training to maintain the same high standards expected of new teachers; and (3) ensuring that all classroom personnel have access to the best, most up-to-date curriculum materials. In somewhat different form, the same ingredients are essential for competent supervisors and administrators.

If these are high-priority concerns in our respective states, we can assure the American people that students in our schools are receiving the best possible instruction which available resources can provide. We can say, once again, that we are pursuing excellence in public education.

More than 2,000 years ago in ancient Rome, Cicero said, "The greatest and best gift which citizens can offer to the Republic is to teach and instruct its youth." Today I would add the condition that the teaching and instruction be of high quality. There must be total commitment to competence in the classrooms of America.

The youth of our Republic deserve no less--in these changing, challenging times.

5

THE TEACHING INTERNSHIP AND TEACHER INDUCTION

Frederick J. McDonald

INTRODUCTION

I have changed the title of this paper from its original title, which was "The Internship as a Field Component of Teacher Induction" to "The Teaching Internship and Teacher Induction." I have made this change because the original title assumed that the internship was a component of a process of induction into the profession, which in turn assumed that there were other components to the induction process. But how the internship is organized determines whether it is the essence of the induction process or a prelude to it or an aspect of it. Further, I think that we need to discuss what we mean by induction and the problems of induction first, then look at the internship in its several forms to answer the questions, "In what ways may the internship prepare for induction into the profession of teaching?" and "How should the internship be organized to facilitate induction into the profession of teaching?" I have chosen therefore to point only to the possibilities of relationship in the title I have chosen rather than assuming a necessary connection of only one kind.

THE FOCI OF THIS PRESENTATION

In this presentation I propose the mastery of the transition period into teaching as the criterion of the effectiveness of a preservice training or educational program. Second, I will discuss the internship as one means of preparing for this transition period, and I will describe such evidence as we have about how successful internships are in preparing individuals for the transition into teaching. Third, I will discuss somewhat more briefly the problems of using the internship as a way of assessing competence for teaching.

My general point of view will be that internships as they are currently used in the education of beginning teachers are essentially a different form of preservice program. They ought therefore to be analyzed as such. They are not the first year of teaching.

The internship as we know it is primarily and exclusively a preservice program, usually organized into a one or two-year program following the completion of a baccalaureate degree, which may or may not have been in professional education. Our experience is also largely with internship programs for secondary-school teachers conducted at the graduate level and following upon the completion of the baccalaureate degree in a major field. There have been a few internships in elementary education.

There have been a few, usually quite successful, programs which integrate an undergraduate program with a graduate internship. One of the most successful, long-term programs of this general character has been in existence for twenty years or so. I am referring to the internship conducted at the University of Oregon.

You should be aware that the data about internship programs are derived from talking to individuals who have conducted these programs and participants in them, reading about these programs, and discussing the issues and problems of the internship with the staff which conduct them. The hard empirical data are few. Evaluations have been conducted of only a few internships and most evaluations which have been conducted leave something to be desired in terms of the criteria which are used to evaluate them, the methods of measuring the achievement of these criteria, and the general level of interpretation of the data.

What can be said precisely is that there are a number of programs which have successfully maintained themselves over the years. From such evidence as can be gathered, which I believe to be reasonably reliable and valid, these programs are soundly constructed and successfully achieve their major goals year after year.

But, as I will develop later in this talk, it seems that the problems of the beginning teacher are transported into the internship rather than precluded by it. Most beginning teachers, that is teachers teaching full-time for the first time, experience a common set of problems irrespective of the kind of training which they have received prior to the formal beginning of full-time teaching. Since the internship is similar to the beginning of full-time teaching, the intern experiences much the same problems as the teacher who has just finished an undergraduate program of teacher training. The difference is that the intern has the resources of the college or university staff and of an on-site teacher to help him or her. But the intern also has other problems because the intern is also learning about teaching for the first time.

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The question therefore is whether a period of preservice preparation is necessary or highly useful before the internship is undertaken. The models which have generally been recommended by the professional organizations of teacher educators, such as those which appear in reports of the Association of Teacher Educators (ATE), require a period of undergraduate training which includes experience in the classroom as an aide or assistant, followed by student teaching; these experiences are paralleled by course work in the foundations and in the methods of pedagogy; and are then followed by a year of internship which is completed as a post-baccalaureate year usually leading to a Masters' degree. There are only a few instances of this model having been tried, when it has, it has had difficulties of an economic nature, such as students avoiding the program because it was possible to obtain a job in teaching without the internship.

We have found that one kind of model, the internship following the baccalaureate without other training and education, has been the most common form of internship tried. this form of the internship is essentially a preservice program. Is the intern any more competent at the end of the internship than a preservice teacher is at the end of the undergraduate program? Or does the teacher who has gone through the undergraduate program reach the same point by the end of his or her first year of teaching as the intern does by the end of the internship?

The answer to these questions seems to be that, other things being equal, the intern and the teacher who has had one year of teaching experience following an undergraduate program probably end up about the same point by the end of the latter's first year of teaching. Since there are little data available, we do not know whether the attrition rate for these programs are comparable. It may be that we are simply seeing two different forms of programs of preparation of a teacher which generally have the same effects, but these occur at different times. In that respect the internship is probably cheaper since it does in one year what the other programs do in three years. But does either form a program produce more competent teachers or should that be the only major criterion for evaluating the utility and effectiveness of these different types of programs?

THE CRITERION OF AN EFFECTIVE PRESERVICE PROGRAM

I am about to propose to you that the most important measure of a successful, that is, an effective preservice program ought to be the ease with which the beginning teacher masters the entrance to or transition to full-time teaching. I believe that this transition into teaching is the major task which must be mastered by the individual who wishes to become a teacher. If this task is mastered successfully, this individual is more likely to remain (and therefore the investment in his or her training has paid off in one major respect) and may develop professionally.

I do not believe that the successful mastery of the transition necessarily produces a teacher of higher competence as measured on a scale of desirable teaching competencies. Obviously the teacher who has successfully mastered the transition is more competent than he or she who has not, because the latter has probably not achieved sufficient competence to carry out the most elementary tasks of teaching, and frequently leaves the profession.

A well-designed, well-managed teacher training program can teach individuals the requisite skills for effective teaching. But if these skills cannot be put together so that the teacher can successfully conduct lessons on a daily basis over an extended period of time, the training program has failed to produce a minimally effective teacher. A training program which helps a teacher adapt to the demands of the daily tasks of teaching so that these tasks are carried out effectively has been as successful as can be expected of a program.

Many of our programs are conceived as ways of producing a high level of professional competence. this goal is desirable, it ought to be the goal of our preservice programs, but in reality we provide neither the time nor the resources to make this goal achievable. It is not possible within the constraints of the undergraduate program, the limited time now allotted for teaching experience, the quality of supervision and the general level of fiscal and personnel resources which we provide to train highly professional teachers of demonstrable competence before the first year of teaching. If we are to continue within the constraints which have existed for some time in the preparation of teachers, we must settle for more reasonable and modest goals. I suggest to you that this modest goal is to train teachers who can master the entrance into teaching, pass through this period and come out of it at a reasonable level of effectiveness.

What do I mean by a "reasonable level of effectiveness?" I mean that a teacher who has mastered the transitional period can manage a class so that the pupils in it are mostly involved in the work of the class; can organize that instruction so that a curriculum is followed and its contents are available to all students in the class; can relate to the pupils in that class in positive ways; can conduct instruction in a planned and orderly way over time; and can provide evaluations of pupils in the ways in which the system requires that they be provided. These achievements are essential to being a teacher.

Consider for a moment the absence of any of these characteristics. A teacher who cannot manage instruction effectively is a teacher who usually has a class that he or she cannot control. A teacher who does not relate in positive ways to students is likely to be a teacher who cannot interest the students in the work, cannot help them in a variety of ways, and who is likely to have pupils whos attitudes towards what is being taught are negative because of the way in which it is being taught. If the teacher cannot conduct instruction in an orderly and structured way over time, the pupils may not complete major portions of a curriculum, may have serious gaps in what they know, and may have very little knowledge of any real substance or worth.

I do not propose here that these criteria are anything more than categories of behaviors which ought to characterize every teacher who has successfully gone through the first months or year of experience in the classroom. There are many ways in which these characteristics will appear in the behavior of teachers. I am not espousing one view of how classes ought to be taught; for example, the word "structure" does not imply a commitment to one way of organizing either instruction or curriculum. Many different teaching styles have these characteristics. I am concerned primarily with the general level of competence represented by these characteristics; and I believe this general level of competence can be achieved in a variety of ways; in different ways of organizing instruction, in different ways of organizing currucula, and in a variety or ways of relating to pupils.

My convictions that the goals of the preservice program ought to be of this general character is based on the beliefs and observations of many people that unless the transition period is mastered successfully, a teacher is unlikely to be effective. Further, it is now widely recognized that some of what is to be learned about professional teaching has to be learned on the job. It may come to be recognized (and this is apparent when one talks to and observes teachers) that until these basic tasks of teaching are mastered, higher levels of professional development are neither understood by the teacher nor can they be acquired by him or her.

THE TRANSITION TO TEACHING

There are two major tasks which have to be mastered if a teacher is to be successful in moving from an inexperienced beginner to a reasonably competent teacher. The first of these tasks relates to the use of the skills of teaching; the second task relates to adapting to the social system of the school in which the teacher teaches. The two tasks are quite different in nature, require different kinds of experiences and training to master them, and have different effects if they are not mastered.

The Problems of Using Effective Skills

We assume that there is a body of knowledge and skill required to be effective as a teacher. This body of knowledge and skill has been developed from experience and from research. Practitioners are fairly clear about what is included in this body of knowledge and skill, and researchers recently have become equally aware of the requirements of effective teaching. There is a remarkable concordance in the views of the practitioner and those of some researchers.

It is also evident from the experiences of beginning teachers what they need to be effective as seen by themselves and by others. What beginning teachers perceive as their needs corresponds to what experienced teachers regard as the essence of their skill and what researchers are finding out as they investigate the relations of teaching skill to pupil learning. There are four major areas in which the beginning teacher requires skill and knowledge in order to become an effective teacher.

Management Skills

The major need of the beginning teacher and of all experienced teachers is skill in managing a class. There are many aspects to this skill, but its presence is easily identified and its absence is all-too-readily identified. Included in this concept of skill is management are such skills as keeping pupils on-task, maintaining social order in the class, using instructional time effectively, being sufficiently organized so that instructional time is not lost or wasted.

Teachers who have these basic management skills can conduct classes in an orderly (though not necessarily a quiet) manner. Their instruction has a beginning and an end, a clear sense of direction, a purpose and an orientation and a structure. They manage transitions artfully; they can cope with the ups and downs of pupils' attention and interest. They can maintain on-task behavior without resorting to the disciplinary strategies of a concentration camp.

Without such management skills one simply does not survive, even though one may remain in the school system. A teacher who cannot successfully manage classes eventually instructs very little. such a teacher also pays a great price in anxiety and fear, and the emotional strain on the teacher may eventually take its toll in a more serious manner.

Planning Skill

The beginning teacher regularly reports difficulties in planning instruction. He does not know how to plan. Beginning teachers have problems in preparing themselves for class since they do not know what will interest pupils, what questions pupils will ask, what kinds of problems will arise in developing comprehension of the material.

Some of the planning skills required may be learned outside the classroom. Some are learned only by experience, such as the amount of content or kind of activity required of a particular lesson.

The consequences of not having these skills is that pupils are deprived of aspects of the curriculum which they ought to have. Poor planning also affects instructional technique itself with consequent damage to the management of instruction. The teacher who has not planned well may have created his or her own "discipline problems".

Integrating Instructional Skills Into Teaching Styles and Strategies

The beginning teacher may have learned a variety of specific instructional techniques, and may have tried putting them together into lessons during a student teaching period. The problem of regular teaching, however, is to sustain the use of such skills in an integrated manner over longer periods of time. This requires adapting these skills to different purposes and different situations. "Questioning" is a basic skill which may be used for the purposes of eliciting students' beliefs or opinions; for assessing what they know; as a basis for inquiry; as the components in an outline of work to be done; as ways of stimulating and encouraging discussion; as elements in a test. The preservice teacher may have learned some or all of these different uses, but in regular teaching it is necessary to use the skill of questioning in these different ways at different times, with different topics, with different pupils and for different specific purposes. The skill can probably be learned only by sustained teaching during which the skill is regularly used for these many different purposes.

Other skills relating to motivating students must also be sustained over time. Interest must be aroused on successive days or in successive lessons. The teacher's motivational strategies must take into account changes in moods and feelings of students, the influence of events external to the classroom on motivation and the teacher's own changes in enthusiasm and interest in different aspects of what is being taught.

A third example of the kinds of skills that have to be integrated into a more complex set of actions is the skill of pacing or timing. Almost all beginning teachers have difficulty timing the amount of content to the length of the lesson. they also may have a poor sense of what a digression is, how to return to a topic after following an interesting by-path, how to move certain kinds of work along at a fairly brisk pace. Again, this skill can probably be learned only under the strains and with the opportunities of sustained teaching.

There are other critical skills which the beginning teacher must learn under the conditions of the classroom such as the techniques and the psychology of evaluating and grading pupils. This and the other skills which we have been discussing are the component skills of effective teaching. Mastery of these skills does not necessarily make an excellent teacher; they are the necessary but not sufficient ingredients of excellence. Without them, however, the teacher will not be minimally competent, nor is the teacher likely to grow professionally.

Adjustment to the Social System of the School

Another major area of learning and growth is the acquisition of skills required to work in a particular school with a particular group of children. These skills include those of perceiving differences in people and social and professional situations, interrelating with different people and adapting instruction to the conditions of the school and to the characteristics of the children in the teacher's class.

Adjustment to Characteristics of Pupils

The teacher has to learn much about the individual children whom he or she is teaching. The abstractions of the textbook become the realities of the classroom. I am referring here to knowledge about pupils such as the general rate at which they learn for their age, the kinds of knowledge and experience they might be expected to have, how their age and sex and ethnic and racial background affects the way they learn. The beginning teacher may have little experience with the children whom he or she first teaches. They mav be culturally and socially quite different from children the teacher has met in her own experience.

If the teacher does not have the necessary knowledge and understanding of these differences among her pupils, the teacher is likely to make gross errors in judgment in planning and managing instruction. The teacher may be less competent with some pupils than with others because of this lack of knowledge. The teacher, however, will not necessarily be a failure, but is more likely to be competent only with certain students and less competent or even incompetent with other students.

The teacher's satisfaction and comfort in the work of teaching will probably also be affected. The teacher will know that he or she is not achieving all that one would hope for with some pupils, and may come to regard himself or herself as a failure. Certainly the teacher's sense of efficacy will be affected.

Adjustment to the Mores and Values of the School

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Each school is a social system of its own, culturally or socially different than other schools, even though sharing characteristics in common with these other schools. The faculty of a school creates a climate of social interaction which may be more or less supportive. Faculties differ in the degree to which they are interested in each other's work, form social relations beyond their professional relations, support and encourage each other, and work together professionally. The beginning teacher needs to adapt to this social system. There may be genuine obstacles to this adaptation because the beginning teacher sees himself or herself as quite different from fellow-teachers or may have little in common with them. Or, the beginning teacher may fit in quite easily and comfortably with the staff of the school. In either case the process of adjustment to a new social group is necessary.

The teacher will also have to learn how to live with the conditions of teaching in that particular school. The support for instruction may be minimal. The amount of supervision my be limited. The principal may or may not be a leader of instruction. Such adaptations are always required, and affect the teacher's satisfaction and motivation in his or her work.

Failure to make a highly successful adaptation does not necessarily mean that the teacher will fail as a teacher. Many competent teachers do not fit easily into the staff and school where they are teaching but notable failures in this respect lead to considerable unhappiness, perhaps impaired effectiveness, and may cause the new teacher to decide to leave the profession.

As important as these adaptations are, they are relatively independent of the teacher's competence. Only when the teacher markedly fails to adapt either to the pupils or the staff in the school is he or she likely to have problems in instruction. But this adaptation must be made in some form and it ultimately determines the kind of person as a teacher the individual becomes.

MASTERING THE TRANSITION INTO TEACHING

From the above descriptions of the problems which the beginning teacher faces it is apparent that some of these tasks may be mastered by preparation while others can be solved only by successful adaptation with experience. A teacher preparation program, for example, can expose the beginning teacher to different schools and different kinds of pupils--this recommendation is frequently made and appears in some standards for certification. But the beginning teacher has to learn to work with the pupils in the school in which he or she begins to teach and to become a part of that school and its faculty. Prior experience may help; and obviously the more experience one has in such adaptations, the more likely one is to find the next required adaptation easier to make.

But beginning teachers have had little adaptive experience, partly because their life-experience is limited and partly because their program may not enlarge their interpersonal experiences. Although a program ought to be designed to enlarge this kind of interpersonal experience and to stimulate the growth which leads to social and emotional maturity, it is unlikely that the program will be able to provide sufficient variety and range in such experiences to eliminate the difficulties in adaptation to the first school and first pupils the teacher will meet.

All of these skills which need to be learned can be partially learned in a variety of ways in preservice programs. Acting as assistants to teachers, observing experienced teachers using these skills, practicing the skills in microteaching, and making the first attempts at integrating these skills in student teaching are ways of acquiring these skills to some degree. Even if student teaching, however, were an ideal experience, it is, almost by definition, a limited teaching experience. It does not provide the experience of conducting teaching for a full day, week after week, over the period of a year. There are, therefore, important aspects of the school year which may not be included in student teaching.

Only if the experiences during the preservice program were identical to or highly similar to the experiences of the day-by-day teaching and if they were carried out over a period of time would we be certain that the preservice teacher was having an equivalent experience to that which begins on the first day of full-time teaching. The internship comes as close to this kind of experience as is possible, and in some internships an identical experience is provided. In this respectsthe internship provides the setting where the skills required to master the transition can be practiced.

An important aspect of this beginning experience is its emotional impact, perhaps this is its most important aspect. The beginning teacher regularly reports anxiety, panic, fatigue, fear and other signs of emotional stress. Beginning teachers

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report being very unsure of their ability to manage a class and being afraid that the class will get out of control.

They are afraid that they will not have enough material prepared for presentation to the students. They are afraid that they cannot manage certain kinds of activities such as discussions until they have learned to control the class. They have a poor sense of pacing, of the significance of digressions, of how to handle interruptions. Either their lack of skill or their lack of experience in using relevant skills makes them very unsure of themselves. This unsureness leads to uncertainty in action which may create further problems for them.

They regularly report being excessively tired, particularly during the first weeks of teaching. Some are physically ill. Their life is consumed with the task of teaching during the beginning of this first year. They feel isolated and alone, becuase they in fact are very much alone in the quality of experience which they are having; they have little help; and they are not personally close to their colleagues as yet.

To a large degrees, as far as can be determined, most beginning teachers are likely to have this kind of experience irrespective of how well they may have been prepared for the tasks of teaching. As I suggested earlier, some of this experience is inevitable. Other aspects of it may be ameliorated or prepared for.

The Changes of the Transition Period

The beginning teacher will always acquire some degree of a sense of control over events as a consequence of the experiences of this transitional period. Some beginning teachers will see the classroom as an uncontrolled and uncontrollable set of events. Whether they survive it or not seems to be more a matter of fate and luck than of their own skill. The most desirable outcome is for the beginning teacher to have acquired a sense of control because they can manage these events successfully.

Another consequence of the period of transition is a sense of efficacy, which again like a sense of control, will range from a sense of being inefficacious to a sense of being highly efficacious. The beginning teacher who masters management and planning can conduct lessons in an orderly and structured manner, can relate to pupils in ways that are constructive for both the teacher and the pupils, and will have developed a sense of achievement. This achievement, because it is comprehensive and significant in substance, will improve the teacher's sense of efficacy. It obviously will take more experience of this kind before the beginning teacher feels sufficiently efficacious that he or she will be comfortable in the task of teaching.

The third consequence of moving through the period of transition is that the beginning teacher acquires the feelings and perspective of a teacher. They are aware of the isolation, of the physical fatigue of teaching; they know what interruptions are likely to occur and what their effect will be upon the pupils and their lessons. They will have a sense of the range of pupils' characteristics with which they have to cope.

These feelings may be so negative as to be overwhelming, or they may be a quiet acceptance of the realities of the conditions under which they will live. Beginning teachers may be overwhelmed by the sense of isolation but come to recognize that it gives them a kind of independence in action which they value. They may learn to recognize that isolation does not necessarily mean that they are helpless, or they may feel so isolated that they feel abandoned.

These kinds of changes are not likely to occur without an extended period of teaching under the conditions of real teaching. Which direction the teacher moves in, either feeling efficacious or inefficacious, either feeling in control or being the victim of fate, of feeling secure or insecure is strongly influenced by the kinds of help, support and instruction available to the beginning teacher during this time. They need specific instruction--on planning for example. They need support. They need encouragement. They need to know that others have experienced this period of transition and have survived it.

It is probably the character of this correlative experience which is more important in the transition than the preparation for it. There are no hard data for this point of view, but we do know from observation and experience that the absence of help and support is highly correlated with difficulties in transition, and the presence of instruction and support facilitates the transition.

The evidence for this comes from the kinds of experiments which are being conducted on teacher induction in Great Britain. Although it is difficult to make precise analogies because the American and British experience are different in important ways, the problems of beginning teachers are remarkably similar cross-culturally. In a series of experiments with different types of induction programs undertaken in Great Britain the most successful induction program was the one in which the beginning teacher had available to him or her an experienced teacher as a monitor, model and counsellor. These teachers made the transitions which we have been describing much mre successfully and the kinds of stresses and strains which I have described earlier were attenuated considerably.

The conclusion seems unarguably clear. The beginning teacher has a particular set of problems for which he or she needs help while these problems are being experienced. Some preparation will make the mastery of these problems much easier and more likely to be successful. But the critical factor in determining whether a beginning teacher masters a particular problem or not is in large part the kind of help they receive during the initial phases of teaching. My own opinion is that this conclusion applies to a limited set of problems, and not necessarily to all of the problems which the beginning teachers themselves state that they have.

We ought to accept the fact that our preparation programs do not prepare individuals for some of the problems which we are describing. It is difficult therefore to separate out what kinds of problems could be solved with better preparation from those which have to be solved with help during the time in which they are being experienced. This problem however, although it shold be studied empirically, seems to be resolvable along the following lines.

A problem like planning, which is in part preparation of materials, in part organizing these materials and in part knowing the level at which pupils will respond to materials, can probably be mastered largely if not totally during preparatory experiences. Even such preparatory experiences as intensive preparation in the weeks immediately preceding the beginning of school would ameliorate planning problems. The part that cannot easily be learned outside of the context of actual teaching is the part where one learns to sense what the appropriate difficulty level for students is. This is a particular, concrete problem which has to be solved as one teaches a particular group of pupils.

Other problems can only partially be prepared for through simulated or other preparatory experiences. Some aspects of pacing can be learned through microteaching, such as how much material can be covered in certain amounts of time. Conducting group discussions can be done in microteaching and in these experiences the beginning teacher can learn how to pace discussions.

One aspect of the skill of pacing which can be partially learned is the amount of time consumed by certain kinds of questions; another is the differences in interests that different topics are likely to arouse which in turn will affect how a teacher times a discussion. But the overall skill of pacing which is a complex skill made up of the timing of individual events, sequencing, interrelating different instructional events to each other can probably be learned only in regular full-time teaching.

Yet other aspects of mastering the transition involve changes in role-perspective. The beginning teacher has to learn to act like a teacher, and to give up the ways of thinking and acting that characterize the student. Without this change in perspective management skills are not likely to be used successfully; the beginning teacher is not likely to understand what is meant by mangement without achieving this new perspective.

Some aspects of learning this perspective can be acquired by working with pupils in instructional roles prior to actual teaching. But it is probably only with the assumption of genuine responsibility for the design of an instructional program, for its conduct, for evaluating pupils that a genuine change in perspective will occur. Although the problem needs badly to be studied, my guess is that these changes in perspective occur at two times: one, when the teacher must assert himself or herself in order to manage the class; and two, when the beginning teacher makes the first decisions about evaluating pupils. We need to know more about the factors contributing to these kinds of changes, but it is obvious that only when the experience is authentic, is the change likely to occur.

The feelings of being a teacher can be acquired only by living that life on a regular basis. As long as the teacher trainee is still a student, primarily affiliated with the university or college, living a life that is a college life, we cannot expect a transition to the life of a teacher. Most undergraduate programs preserve this kind of affiliation.

THE TRANSITION PERIOD AND THE INDUCTION OF TEACHERS

The period we have been describing as a transition period occurs almost exclusively during the first year of teaching, and in most cases relatively during the first year. Beginning teachers report that they are in a state of panic and in a kind of haze for about the first month of school. This state is alleviated by that time, but the beginning teacher is still struggling with the problems of management and timing even if he or she is doing so successfully. New experiences lie ahead in the form of the first assessment period, conferences with parents and the first evaluation of the teacher. It is generally believed on the basis of everyday observation that most teachers have "settled in" within the first six months. It is believed that by this time they have achieved their basic teaching style; if they have not, they are usually in serious

Is the transition period the whole of the induction process? Certainly it is the first phase, and apparently the most critical phase of induction. The answer to this question, however, depends on what we consider to the be goal of induction into the profession. If we mean by this induction becoming a fully professional teacher, then the induction process can extend well beyond the first year. This definition of induction does not seem to be particularly useful since if applied literally, it could be said that many teachers are still in the induction phase after twenty years of experience.

We could use as a criterion for the completion of induction the achievement by the teacher of a state of comfort with teaching. The teacher at that point would have mastered the basic tasks such as planning and management, would feel reasonably secure, could anticipate most difficulties, and would be capable of coping with the general run of teaching problems. This end-point for the induction process seems sensible because it is possible to distinguish between teachers who have achieved this end point and those who have not.

The problem, of course, is that we have no accepted and clear-cut meaning of induction. For the school administration induction probably means knowing the rules and regulations of the school, knowing how to handle the routine administrative matters that are handled by teachers, and being able to control a class. For the Chapter Chairperson or local representative it may mean an interest in union activities and problems. For the college professor who is a teacher educator it may mean achieving a high level of professional knowledge and skill. All such views are views of the outsider. The teacher himself or herself may consider themselves inducted into the profession when they can manage its basic tasks and have achieved tenure.

This latter concept seems to be at least sufficiently useful to be a working concept. In this sense then the transition period is the first and still the most critical phase of this process. By the time teachers have mastered the transition period they have laid the ground for successful performance which ought to result in obtaining tenure.

There is a subsequent period through which they will pass during which they become more skillful and more sure of themselves and achieve a sense of comfort and efficacy, and then hopefully a sense of success in teaching. This second phase of the induction process seems to be one which occurs because the teacher continues to use what they have learned during the transition period, and has become more skillful at it and therefore more comfortable in the role of a teacher. Passing through this second phase is neither helped nor hindered by the availability of help; help does not seem to be necessary except for unusual problems or crises.

It is a reasonable conclusion therefore that the essence of the induction process is mastering the transition period. If this is so, then the important question to ask is, how does the internship affect mastering the transition period?

THE INTERNSHIP AND THE TRANSITION INTO TEACHING

Internships take several different forms. One form is the internship which follows the undergraduate program. Such an internship is usually one year in length. The undergraduate program preceding it includes the usual array of courses in the foundations and methods and a variety of practical experiences ranging from observations to student teaching. The internship in this case is usually a full-time teaching position, and differs from regular first-year teaching in that the teacher has an intern certificate rather than a permanent certificate. The program at the University of Oregon is such a program.

Another type of internship follows an undergraduate degree usually in the liberal arts or sciences. This program may be one or two years in length. The two-year program includes a first year of methods' courses and other types of training activities. It may also include some academic work. During this first year, the intern is more frequently supervised and assessed. The second year is relatively free of formal supervision, and includes a limited amount of academic courses or work in professional education. The amount of teaching in the first and second year may also be different, the second year being a full-time teaching position. The program at Temple University in Philadelphia is a program of this type.

The other of type of program is the one-year variation on the type just described. It also has two forms. The students may either teach a full academic load or a half-time load. Depending on which of these two alternatives the program follows, the students will have a greater or lesser academic and training program during the course of the year. When the teaching load is full-time, the other training activities usually precede it or sometimes follow it. When the teaching load is half-time, the academic and teacher training program may precede this school year but also usually accompanies it. Stanford University conducts a program in which the interns teach a half-time load. The internship progam conducted some years ago at the University of California, Berkeley was one in which the interns taught a full-time teaching load.

There are two obvious differences among these programs. One is the extent to which there is formal training during the undergraduate program; the other is the amount of teaching done during the internship itself. We know practically nothing about what difference these variations make. They seem to make one on first inspection. Each designer of a program has beliefs about the value of a particular design, but frequently these designs are strongly influenced by availability of resources for teaching or faculty for supervising rather than by evidence that one form or the other is more effective.

The question of concern here is the relationship of any one of these forms to mastering the transition process and subsequent stages of the induction process into teaching. Each of these types of programs provides the experiences of the transition phase. The full-time teaching types provide almost an exact equivalent to regular teaching. Some argue that because the interns may not be in the school in the following year, an internship is never identical to a regular teaching position. The strength of this argument is somewhat attenuated by the fact that many interns continue in the school in which they do their internships. With this possible exception, the internships provide the opportunity for the intern to master the problems of transition.

It might be said that the major distinguishing characteristic of the internship is that it does offer this opportunity. The intern is responsible for a class; which means he or she must manage it, plan for it, assess the pupils, and work in the school much like a regular teacher, especially if he or she is there full-time. there may be no expectations that the interns will work in extracurricular activities, but in all other respects they are first-year teachers.

The advantage which the internship offers is that it provides support and instruction during the transition phase. In this respect it is similar to the most successful model with which the British have exprimented. In fact the only real alternative to an internship for providing support during the transitional experience is a regular teaching job conducted under the supervision of an experienced teacher. The arguments pro and con regarding the internship ought therefore to be evaluated in the light of its most significant contribution to the development of teaching skill.

The logic of the point of view presented here is: if the most important phase in the development of a teacher is the transition phase into teaching, then the internship (requiring responsibility for teaching over the course of a year and with adequate supervision and support) is probably one of the two most effective ways to help teachers master this transition phase. It may well be the most effective way.

The internship in this respect is a remarkably efficient program becuase it does not require an extended period of preservice preparation. Serious study, however, should be made of the differences in effectiveness, ease of transition, and other significant factors of this kind in the two types of programs, the one in which extended training precedes the internship, and the other in which it does not.

Other Benefits of the Internship

The internship has several other benefits which should be pointed out. One of these is the flexibility in design that has been achieved as different forms of the internship have been tried out. Many different kinds of arrangements can be made of the teaching experience itself which then lead to different arrangements of subject-matter instruction.

Another major benefit of the internship is the attitude towards it of its participants. The internship seems to the participants to be particularly valuable becuase it is "real" teaching. They are immersed in the profession from the beginning of the program and begin very quickly to live a life very much like that of a regular teacher.

This aspect of the internship of course has costs as well as benefits. The difficulties of the initial teaching experience cannot be underestimated, but the interns seem to have a sense after they have gone through this experience that this was the only way they could really learn to teach.

Another benefit of the internship is that methodology courses and foundation courses may become much more realistic. The interns bring to the class their experiences, and these experiences are frequently the major substance of the courses in professional education. Again, this may be a mixed benefit since the emphasis in the course may become so heavily practical that other aspects of the learning such as new ideas, methods which are not characteristically found in most schools, and the theoretical bases of pedagogy might be slighted. But there are ways to cope with such difficulties, and many of them have been tried--such as giving more theoretical courses prior to the experience (a programming arrangement that is probably not too successful), or following the practical experience when the interns have time to reflect on the character and quality of their teaching experience.

Another aspect of the psychology of the participants in the program is a tendency on their part to value the counsel of experienced teachers. They learn from those who know how to cope with the situations which they themselves are experiencing. This tendency may lead to imitating only conservative, traditional ways of teaching, and innovative methods or different ways of teaching than are characteristic of those in a particular school may be devalued.

Problems of the Internship

Most of the problems associated with the internship are those associated with any preservice program. Some of these are the quality of supervision by the staffs of schools in which the interns are teaching, the amount and quality of the superivision provided by the college faculty, the integration of theory and practice, the lack of recent practical experience in the college faculty, the realism of methodological and foundation courses. An internship does not solve these problems; it does not necessarily exacerbate them.

A problem unique to the internship is the integration of work and study, which does occur in an attenuated form during the period of student teaching in the more traditional preservice program. There are no easy resolutions of this problem which essentially is one of the intern having a large amount of work to do. An important aspect of this integration of work and study is that the intern is serving two masters who at times can be in conflict. The intern is required to move between two quite different worlds. Most interns seem to be able to master this problem but, interestingly, programs do not always deal with it directly as part of the training in the program.

Another problem with the internship is that it provides a unique and particular teaching experience. The intern is in a specific school in one community. (Few internships move interns around to different types of schools though all program designers admit that this would be desirable.) What the intern learns about children and schooling is learned in the context of this particular school and from these particular children. This problem is not unique to the internship because it exists in student teaching. But in the internship the experience is intensive and is therefore likely to have a permanent effect on the interns' perceptions of children, what constitutes effective teaching, the criteria of success in teaching, and their judgment about how to get along in the job of teaching.

I do not think the internship should be particularly faulted for this deficiency because it characterizes other preservice programs and teaching itself. Many teacher spend a good portion of their professional career in one or two schools, or in only one school district.

The Internship and Teaching Competence

Most people who support the concept of an internship claim and expect to produce more competent teachers. This argument for the internship seems to be based on a rather naive notion of the value of practice. Because the internship does provide vastly more practice than any other form of preservice program, it is too readily assumed that therefore interns will inevitably turn out to be better teachers. There is little empirical data, even of the weakest kind, to substantiate a claim of this magnitude.

In my judgment what the internship can claim to do better is prepare the intern for the transition into full-time teaching (which occurs almost instantaneously for the intern) and help him or her through it more effectively. Although there is not much data to support this notion, it seems likely that this claim could be substantiated if the matter were thoroughly investigated.

I have focused in this presentation on the relation of the transition period to the effectiveness of an internship program. I believe that the transition period is the most critical period in the development of the teacher (perhaps only the "burn-out" period in later life is comparable). Therefore the utility of whatever can be learned in a preservice program is demonstrated in the first few months of full-time teaching. The internship in its inception is the transition period, and therefore the value of the internship is in how this transition period is prepared for and how it is managed for the intern.

There is another cliam made about internships, a claim that the competence of a teacher is better assessed during an internship than during student teaching. I now turn to that matter, and we shall see that this claim is probably much too strong but not totally unrealistic.

The Internship and the Assessment of Teaching Competence

The belief seems to be widespread that we can obtain a better assessment of teaching competence during an internship than we can in any other way prior to actual teaching. This view rests on assumptions which are not valid. The internship is more likely to provide more valid measurements of competence, but only to the degree that the measurement of competence is also reliable.

A major way of achieving reliability is by having comparable conditions under which teaching performance is assessed. Teachers must be observed teaching the same or highly similar content to similar pupils under similar conditions. Teaching perofrmance varies considerably from one occasion to another and is strongly influenced by what is being taught, to whom it is being taught, by the resources available and other such factors.

It is generally believed that any observation is a representative sample of a teacher's competence. This belief is not only unsupported by research, it is contradicted by it. We cannot predict from how a teacher teaches reading how he or she will perofrm in teaching mathematics. Although there is a widespread belief that there are basic teaching skills which ought to characterize the performance of all teaching tasks, the research evidence does not support such a point of view.

There is considerable variability both in the skills that are required for effectiveness in different tasks of teaching, and the demands of the tasks themselves vary considerably so that it would not be sensible for the teacher to use identical performances from task to task. Consider the physics teacher who conducts demonstrations, manages and supervises a laboratory, and gives explanations of physical phenomena. The different tasks require different performances, different skills to conduct them effectively and their successful performance is judged by different criteria.

The conclusion seems inescapable therefore that to measure the teaching competence of different teachers an observer must obtain nearly identical samples of teaching performances on identical or certainly highly similar tasks. This requirement would demand that the individuals being observed teach the same subjects, meaning comparable content and objectives, at the same time, meaning time of day and time of year, and to comparable groups of students, under comparable conditions such as having identical or highly similar resources available to the teacher. To the degree that there is considerable variation across all of these conditions, the reliability of the observation is reduced.

Another factor affecting reliability is the size of the sample of data obtained. We all know that one or two observations is a very small sample of a teacher's performance in a classroom. Making judgments from such a small sample invites the risks of making errors of judgment because of the unreliability of these data. Therefore reliability also requires that an "adequate" number of measurements be taken, which most certainly will not be less than five to ten observations in the course of a year.

I am not raising these difficulties to undermine the possibility of using the internship as an assessment procedure, but an intership during which a teacher can be observed does not mean that we will automatically make better judgments about a teacher's competence. These real difficulties in measurement need to be resolved, and they can be.

It seems obvious that the internship provides a way of recognizing teachers who had substantial difficulties in teaching--lacking management skills, poor control of order and structure in the classroom, poor presentations, and other obvious and large deficiencies. But even in such cases it would be necessary to demonstrate that the teacher's performance was not affected by the particular conditions under which he or she was teaching; or that the teacher was simply having a bad day.

Admittedly the internship provides more opportunities for observing a teacher, and it also provides opportunities to observe teaching performances which do not usually occur during student teaching or which occur only in an attenuated form. In the internship we usually can serve the teacher at the beginning of the year, whereas in student teaching we may or may not be able to observe during this period of time. We also can observe the effects of long-term planning during the internship, but in student teaching we can only observe planning over a much shorter period of time. Such differences contribute to making the internship potentially a source of more valid data about teaching competence.

But if the measurement process itself is unreliable the validity of these data are correspondingly reduced. It is impossible to have validity without reliability; validity is a direct function of the reliability of the measurement.

Assessment of Competence in the One-Year Internship

The internship which follows the baccalaureate degree without previous educational training is a complete preservice program in itself. This program presents special problems in measurement. If we have set up an adequate system for observing reliably, we would ordinarily measure at several different points in time from the beginning of the school year to its end. If we applied this system to the internship which is a complete preservice program, we would encounter the following problems.

First, the assessments made early in the year would largely measure differences in adaptive skills and in aptitude for teaching. Those interns who could adapt quickly to new situations would have an advantage that would affect in some unknown way the quality of their teaching performance. Those who had greater aptitude for teaching would learn more quickly, but this superiority in the beginning does not necessarily predict (or we do not know if it predicts) superiority at a later point in time.

Second, measurements throughout the year, particularly in the early part of the year would probably be measures of growth in skill rather than in achieved competence. Third, differences in competence may be more attributable to the differences in the kinds of training being received than to achieved skill. We should distinguish between assessments which are measuring rate of progress and assessments which are measuring achieved competence. Usually we will be measuring growth until the teacher's style has stabilized.

Summary Judgments About the Internship as an Assessment Procedure

It seems to me that the following kinds of judgments can be made about the value of the internship as a device or system for assessing achieved competence:

1) The internship is more likely to provide valid data about teaching competence than other kinds of teaching experiences prior to full-time teaching.
2) It should be recognized in making assessments during the internship that the data collected at certain times are more likely to reflect growth in skill rather than achieved competence and may be heavily influenced by training experiences.
3) The conditions under which the internships are being conducted need to be comparable across internships to make reliable assessments.
4) The conditions of measurements must be as reliable as possible across teachers to make valid judgments about their competence.

These statements apply almost item for item to other kinds of teaching experiences which we use as a source of data to assess competence, particularly student teaching. But these other sources of data are less likely to be valid. These problems are resolvable, but we have not been notably vigorous in attempting to solve them. We measure teaching competence very badly, and the truth of the matter is that our judgments about the teaching skill of candidates recommended for certification are probably modestly valid at best. Internship will not remedy the poor technical quality of our assessment procedures.

I have spent this time discussing the internship as a potential source of data about competence because of the widespread belief that the internship will help us make better judgments about the competence of individuals recommended for certification. There seems to be an assumption that we will reduce the number of incompetent teachers by means of an internship during which we can measure performance skill. The internship provides this possibility, it does not guarantee it. The vast majority of individuals in professional education have not worked in internship programs, managed them, or been students in them. I was a teacher in an internship program for ten years and worked actively in its development and conducted research on the participants in that program. I can assure you that the existence of an internship does not automatically guarantee that more valid judgments will be made about the competence of the beginning teacher. The methods and substance for the assessment of teaching competence in these programs tend to be negotiated politically among faculty members much like other matters are negotiated politically in these and other programs. Would that the problem were approached as a technical problem well within the current state of the art.

CONCLUSION

It is difficult to think of the internship as a component of the process of induction except in the broadest sense in which any aspect of training in education is a part of the induction process. It seems more sensible to think of the internship as essentially the management of the induction process.

Whatever type of program is developed of which the internship is an integral part, the critical aspect of the internship probably is the management of the transition into full-time teaching. Moving through this phase under the supervision of the college faculty and experienced teachers who work closely with the intern is a way of increasing the likelihood that the intern will master this transition period. The costs invested in his or her training are thereby redeemed, and there is the possibility that the intern can achieve an even higher level of skill because of the extended supervision and instruction during the period of the internship.

But it must be pointed out, underlined and emphasized that we are talking about "possibilities" and that an internship is no better than the characteristics which are built into it. Extended practice is not a substitute for poor supervision; unsupervised internships are poorly designed apprenticeships, if that.

Those internships which are sensibly designed so that high quality supervision is provided, where the faculty are aware of the problems which the intern may be having, where instruction is readily available, where the professional program is built around the teaching experience, are programs which are effective in retaining teachers and effective in producing teachers who have mastered the basic tasks of teaching.

The first queston to answer is, "How much is an effective teacher worth?" We have answered that question, answered it by deciding to limit the amount of preparation required of teachers, by understaffing supervision during their preparation, by avoiding rigor in the assessment of competence before certification, and by providing them with limited supervised teaching experience prior to employment. It is in the context of the answer to the question about the worth of an effective teacher that we can approach such policy matters as whether or not internships ought to be required prior to certification. The technical problems of designing good programs have largely been resolved. Whether or not to require internships is not the real issue. The real issue is how much money and time do we wish to invest in developing effective teachers? An internship or a well-supervised first-year teaching experience is essential if the beginning teacher is to be successfully inducted into teaching.

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PROGRAM

FIFTY-SECOND ANNUAL CONVENTION

JUNE 17, 1980
(Tuesday)

CONVENTION HALL "C"

9:00 a.m.	**Presiding**	**Dr. Lillian V. Cady, President**
	CALL TO ORDER	
	INTRODUCTION OF GUESTS	
	WELCOME	Honorable Gregory Anrig Commissioner of Education Commonwealth of Massachusetts
9:30 a.m.	**Presiding**	**Mr. Thomas O'Connor, Acting Director** Bureau of Teacher Preparation and Placement Massachusetts Department of Education
	ADDRESS	In Search of Quality - The Need for New Talent in Teaching Dr. W. Timothy Weaver Associate Professor, School of Education Boston University
	QUESTIONS -	
10:30 a.m.	**Break**	
10:45 a.m.	**Presiding**	**Dr. Fred A. Price, Vice President** Northeast
	PAPER	Admission to and Retention in Teacher Education Curricula
	PRESENTOR	Dr. Thomas Ryan, Chair Department of Education and Professional Development Western Michigan University
	REACTORS	Mr. Fred Andleman Professional Development Division Massachusetts Teachers Association

(REACTORS continued)		Dr. Evelyn DiTosto, Chief Teacher Education Branch Maryland Department of Education
		Dr. Ray Harper, Dean Division of Professional Education Bridgewater (Mass.) State College
	QUESTIONS -	
12:15 p.m.	**Lunch**	
1:45 p.m.	**Presiding**	**Mrs. Anne Patterson, Vice President** Central
	PAPER	The Internship as a Field Component of Teacher Induction
	PRESENTOR	Dr. Fred McDonald Senior Research Psychologist Educational Testing Service
	REACTORS	Dr. Howard Coron, Director Division of Student Teaching New York University
		Dr. Nicholas Hobar, Director Division of Professional Development Systems West Virginia Department of Education
		Mr. Charles Santelli, Director Division of Research New York State United Teachers
	QUESTIONS -	
3:15 p.m.	**Break**	
3:30 p.m.	**Regional Meetings**	
	NORTHEAST	Convention Hall "C"
	SOUTHERN	Mine-Suite
	CENTRAL	Convention Hall "C"
	WESTERN	Mini-Suite

JUNE 17, 1980
(Tuesday)
(continued)

BALLROOM "1"

6:30 p.m.	**Social Hour**	
7:30 p.m.	**Presiding**	**Dr. Charles C. Mackey, Jr.** President-Elect
	BANQUET	
	WELCOME	All City Chorus Boston Public Schools
	ADDRESS	Teacher Competence The State Boards View
	PRESENTOR	Honorable Emlyn Griffith, President National Association of State Boards of Education and Regent, The University of the State of New York

JUNE 18, 1980
(Wednesday)

CONVENTION HALL "C"

8:30 a.m.	**Presiding**	**Dr. Orrin Nearhoof** Past-President
	ADDRESS	The State of the Association Dr. Lillian V. Cady, President
	REPORTS OF COMMITTEES:	
	AUDIT	Dr. Eugene Yamamoto, Chair
	NOMINATIONS	Mr. Henry Bissex, Chair
	RESOLUTIONS	Mr. David Roy, Chair
	STANDARDS	Dr. Vere McHenry, Chair
	INTRODUCTION OF WORKSHOP PERSONNEL	
10:30 a.m.	**Break**	

10:45 a.m.	**Presiding**	**Dr. Peter LoPresti, Vice President** **Western**
	PAPER	Application of Standardized vs. Locally Designed Licensure Examinations
	PRESENTOR	Dr. Bill Leach, Associate Director Teacher Education and Staff Development Georgia Department of Education
	REACTORS	Dr. Jack Bloomfield, Member Board of Examiners New York City School District
		Ms. Joan Buckley Massachusetts Federation of Teachers
		Dr. William Harris, Firector Teacher Programs and Services and National Teacher Examinations Educational Testing Services
		Mr. J. Arthur Taylor, Director Division of Teacher Education Standards and Certification North Carolina Department of Public Instruction
	QUESTIONS -	
12:15 p.m.	**Lunch**	
1:45 p.m.	**Workshops**	**Professional Discipline and** **Certificate Revocation** Mini-Suite
		Mr. J. Michael Eadry, Associate Counsel New York State United Teachers
		Dr. Miles Williams, Supervisor Teacher Education and Certification Idaho Department of Education
1:45 p.m.	**Workshops** (continued)	**The Washington Scene** **Implications of the Higher Education Act on** **Teacher Education and Certification** Convention Hall "C"
		Dr. C. Emily Feistritzer, Publisher Teacher Education Reports Washington, DC

JUNE 19, 1980
(Thursday)

CONVENTION HALL "C"

9:00 a.m. **Presiding** **Dr. Wayland Jones, Vice President**
Southern

REPORTS OF CONSTITUENT MEMBERS:

American Theatre Association
Drs. Jack Morrison and William Waacke

Interstate Certification Project
Dr. Helen Hartle

National Association of State Boards of Education
Ms. Patricia Mitchell

National Council of States on Inservice Education
Dr. Ted Andrews

National Council on Teachers of Mathematics
Ms. Kay Tobin

National Diffusion Network
Dr. Joyce Murphy

National Education Association
Dr. Roy Edelfelt

National Teacher Examinations
Dr. William Harris

Speech Communication Association
Dr. Kenneth Brown

10:30 a.m. **Brunch**

BALLROOM "3"

11:45 a.m. **Presiding** **Dr. Lillian V. Cady, President**
Business Meeting

1:30 p.m. **Adjournment**

POST-CONVENTION ACTIVITIES

2:00 p.m. **Executive Committee**